The Nation.

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The Week.

VARIOUS accounts agree that President McKinley thinks he has found the solution of the patronage puzzle in the old system of making Senators and Representatives "get together." If they will only come to a perfect agreement and tell him what they want, he will do it, but there must be no factions, no differences, no splits in the party, no intrigues or grievances; all is to be union and contentment, and the common enemy is to get no comfort out of quarrels over the spoils. Now, if this were true, which we can scarcely credit, it would show that Mr. McKinley had not mastered the rudiments of the doctrine of civil-service reform; he would be yet in his sins, as the apostle says. Was not the "getting-together" theory tried for years, with the result only of the worst factions and quarrels and disgraces and defeats the party has ever known? When spoilsmen get together, it is only to fight the more bitterly at short range. And what sort of nominees are likely to issue from such a system? What style of man must he be who is willing to do the dirty work, not merely of one Senator, but of two? Is the civil-service-reform law likely to be administered, in letter and in spirit, by such a head of department? President McKinley's friends and advisers should hasten to tell him that this alleged system of placating the spoilsmen and harmonizing the party has been proved over and over again a fruitful mother of furious quarrels and of fatal treasons, stratagems and spoils in the party. Never was there a more misleading cry of peace, peace, when there is no peace.

Speaker Reed's reëlection places him in a position of extraordinary power, with what must be extraordinary freedom from pledges limiting that power. The question is what use he will make of it. The Speaker's control over legislation is now, under the rules and practices of the House, almost absolute. Mr. Reed can certainly shape the new tariff bill, for instance, in ways wholly impossible to Mr. McKinley. The people know this now. The time has passed when the Speaker could exercise his vast power unsuspected. Nor can he shirk his responsibility. No bill can pass the House without his passive approval, and that, in effect, is the same thing as active advocacy. It is Speaker Reed, more than any other one man or set of men, who will give us our new tariff. What kind of tariff will he make it? Will he acquiesce again, as he did in 1890, in a bill which he believed, and freely stated in private, to be extreme and certain to lead to a terrible reaction? The next three months will answer this question. Meantime, Mr. Reed should reflect that whatever political ambition he may cherish has a chance of being gratified only by a return to his early manner. He was thought of as a Presidential candidate solely because he had shown himself a bold, strong man, not afraid of initiative and not dreading responsibility. The moment he took up the rôle of dev'lish sly politician, he was lost. He has now another opportunity, and the country will be curious to see how he uses it. We may add that the wish to render true service to his party and to the public would equally demand that Speaker Reed should not abdicate, but should exert his power and give us a tariff which will be neither monstrous nor obsolete.

The objection to having Judges of the Supreme Court act as arbiters under the arbitration treaty is rested on the ground that they may have already formed opinions and expressed them in the shape of judicial decisions. This, according to one leading commentator, would prevent them from "acting untrammelled" for the country's best interests. This idea rests, like so many others expressed about arbitration, on a misapprehension. The mistake lies in a confusion between opinions previously formed and expressed about a controversy itself, and opinions previously formed and expressed on points of law which may become involved in it. The former is a good objection to a judge; the latter is one of his most important qualifications. It is, in fact, merely proof that he has a good knowledge of law. If a Judge of the Supreme Court, for instance, had decided that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty clashed with the Monroe Doctrine and overrode it, it would be absurd to put him on a court to pass upon the matter. On the other hand, the more questions he has investigated and decided with regard to treaties and international law, the more general knowledge he has of the principles applicable to this or any other novel question. In the present arbitration between England and Venezuela, an arbitrator who has repeatedly decided questions as to the effect of actual occupation of territory would be in so far qualified to pass on the boundary question; it would only be in case that he had actually decided that the true boundary was the Schomburgk or some other line, that he would be disqualified.

There are a number of questions pending between the United States and England which might come before the proposed arbitration court. We have just referred to the Clayton-Bulwer dispute; the fisheries question is another. These disputes, as they stand, have never been before the Supreme Court; there is no way of getting them before that body, and its decision, if rendered, would not be binding. No doubt, however, there are a number of legal questions involved, such as the force and effect of treaties, and the *mare clausum* question, which have already been either before the Supreme Court or before particular Judges of the Supreme Court in former arbitrations; and so far as such questions have been examined and considered by them, in so far are they preëminently qualified to act in new cases. The real reason why this qualification is brought up as an objection is because those who make it do not want questions between this and other countries decided by rules of law, but by some other means. Mr. Keasbey, for instance, who wrote a great book the other day on the Nicaragua Canal question, says that, according to international law, the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is binding, but that we must take higher ground. Any one who entertains this view must loathe the idea of the submission of the controversy to a judge.

The Consul-General of the United States at Honolulu has just struck a nefarious blow at Hawaiian annexation. He has given out the results of the census lately taken in Hawaii. This shows the total population of the islands to be 109,020, the native Hawaiians numbering 31,019, the Japanese 24,407, the Chinese 21,616, the Portuguese 15,191, half-breed Hawaiians 8,485, with scattering Americans, British, Germans, etc. Consul Mills may try to shelter himself under the pretence of a love for statistical information in the abstract, but that will hardly pass. Why should he have chosen the very beginning of the McKinley administration to bring out the fact that a proposition to annex Hawaii is a proposition to annex 70,000 Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese, and half-breed Hawaiians? Was he aiming to put Annexationist Lodge, with his educational-test immigration bill, in the deepest of holes? The Consul is evidently meddling with things that do not concern him. He should be removed, and a new census should be taken, or else the old one extensively altered.

Twenty-five trade associations met at Young's Hotel, in Boston, on March 8, and decided to petition Congress to pass a bill authorizing the President to appoint a banking and currency commission. They demand the gold standard and the gradual retirement of the legal tenders, and favor the issue of currency by the national banks to the par value of

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their bonds, and a reduction of the tax on circulation. They also recommend additional banking currency, based on assets, under national supervision, safe, elastic, and redeemable in gold, and the establishment of banks, with a capital of $25,000 or more, in small towns and villages. The one important thing is that they demand action. The future of the currency question is very dark, but there is one consideration that is encouraging, and that is the appearance of an organized effort for currency reform among the classes directly suffering from the free-silver agitation. That is something new.

The charter was "jammed" through its first stage on Thursday evening in a thoroughly scientific manner. Those members of the Commission who could be depended upon to favor whatever Platt wished, went to Albany to join the members of the Platt city committees of the two houses in "considering" the amendments which had been proposed at the hearings. The result of this solemn consultation is thus announced: "Not one of the amendments of any importance suggested at the hearings was entertained favorably by the Commissioners or accepted by the committees." Why take the trouble to hold a consultation to bring about a foreordained result? Platt announced several weeks ago that the charter was to be passed without amendment, and all his hired men had their minds made up for them when this decision was proclaimed. Hearings and consultations are relics of the old style of government and have no place in the new system. They do not deceive any one, and have about them an air of humbug which is not in keeping with so bluff and bold a ruler as Platt. "Jam 'er through and say nothing," is the genuine Platt method of legislation.

President Low's letter to Mayor Strong gives pretty plain indication that he regards the Platt Government's State police bill as a serious blow to the pretence that the new charter contains a "large measure of home rule." He says "the bill raises the fundamental question of an unusual interference with the local prerogative just at the moment when a charter is pending that aims to give to the greater city larger and not less control of its destinies," and he thinks that the "local prerogative" should be contended for vigorously by the local authorities, whose "trumpet should utter no uncertain sound in summoning the citizens to this controversy." Mr. Low seems to think that defeating Platt's bill will in some way prevent the city from like interference in the future in case the new charter be adopted; but it is difficult to see how he arrives at that opinion. The fundamental defect of the charter is that it not only does not protect us against such interference, but makes it inevitable. It is not final legislation, but initiatory legislation; it is merely the beginning of endless legislation and endless interference. It is upon this point that the trumpets of all advocates of good government for the city should "utter no uncertain sound," and keep on uttering it until the enactment of the charter is prevented and steps are taken to secure for us a real charter in its place. Mr. Low speaks of the police provisions of the new charter as "manifestly dangerous," and so they are, but they are no more so than the Municipal Assembly provisions, and no more so than the charter itself.

Our State Government left this city for Washington on Sunday evening after an unusually busy and fruitful day's work. His most trusted agents were at his hotel early that morning, and the executive session began promptly and continued without interruption till quite late in the afternoon. The results were given out to the reporters in the usual way at the close, and were published in the morning papers. This gracious practice on the part of our Government enabled us to know on Monday just what would be done by his Legislature and other branches during the week. The four great matters considered were the new charter, the State police bill, the amendments to the liquor-tax law, and the Ellsworth newspaper-portrait bill. The Government decided that the charter should be introduced on Wednesday, and be "jammed" forward steadily from that date; all the agents agreed to do their best to carry out this decree. Agent Lauterbach reported to the Government that the newspaper reports of a tendency to insubordination on the part of Agent Black towards the State police bill were entirely unfounded, that Agent Black was in hearty accord with the Government, and that the bill would go forward without obstacle whenever the Government thought best to have it start. The Government decided upon its introduction at once, on Monday night, if Agent Lauterbach could get to Albany with it, and decided also that the Wray power-of-removal bill should be "shunted" when the Lauterbach bill appeared. Agent Raines had a long hearing on his liquor-law amendments, and the Government decided in favor of their introduction, much to the chagrin, it is announced, of Agents Lauterbach, Jake Worth, and Abe Gruber, who question the political expediency of the amendments, but bow humbly to the superior wisdom of the Government. The Ellsworth portrait bill received the Government's prompt approval, it being urged that the religious and moral sentiment of the State was strongly in its favor.

The thoughtful report on Trusts made by the Lexow committee last week offers no remedy, but maintains that the evidence did not show that Trusts lowered prices to the consumer; that it *did* show that they lowered the price of the raw material; that it did not show that the product was more perfect; that it did not show that Trusts gave better wages and more constant employment to laborers; that it did show, however, that Trusts gave greater stability of price to the consumer; that it did show the issue of stock certificates of greatly inflated value, giving rise to much speculation. But we are chagrined to find that, after laying these important discoveries before the public, the committee admitted that "it could not at this time suggest a remedy." The simple bill which the committee reports, that the Attorney-General, when he sees something going on in the commercial world that he does not understand, should have power to summon witnesses to explain it to him, strikes us as, under the circumstances, almost ludicrously inadequate. What we want is a law that will make Trusts really useful to the community, instead of being, as now, harmful or worthless. The facts on which legislation should be based are now, thanks to Mr. Lexow and his able coadjutors, in our hands. Why, then, does the Legislature stand idle and powerless?

The Court of Appeals, in the case of Curran vs. Galen, decided, week before last, a question of growing importance. Curran, in his complaint, charged that the defendants, some of whom were individuals, and one an Assembly of the Knights of Labor in Rochester, had conspired to injure him and take away his livelihood. He said that they threatened him that unless he would join the Assembly, pay the initiation fee, and subject himself to its rules and regulations, they would obtain his discharge from the employment in which he then was, and would make it impossible for him to obtain any employment unless he became a member. In pursuance of this conspiracy, upon his refusing to become a member of the Association, they made complaint to his employers and forced them to discharge him, and, by false and malicious reports in regard to him, sought to bring him into ill repute with members of his trade and employers, and to prevent him from prosecuting his trade and earning a livelihood. The answer set up as a special defence that there existed in Rochester an employers' association, called the Ale-Brewers' Association, and that the ale-brewers had an agreement with the Assembly that all their employees should be members of that body, and "that no employee should work for a longer period than four weeks without becoming a member." Curran, it went on, was so employed for more than four weeks by an Association company after he was notified of the provisions of this agreement requiring him to become a member of the Assembly; he

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refused to comply; the Assembly notified the company, and this was the reason of his discharge, and not malice or ill-will.

This answer was demurred to, and the Court of Appeals says it is good for nothing, because it states no legal defence. The Judges might have added, though they do not, that it is in fact nothing but an elaborate description of the very injury of which Curran complains. The court says that the agreement which it sets up cannot be upheld, because it is against public policy; that the interests of society favor the utmost freedom in the citizen to pursue any lawful trade or calling. That employers should enter into such agreements as that described in the Curran case shows, no doubt, the power of the unions, and they are just as dangerous to the employers themselves, all experience testifies, as they are illegal. What employer who cannot give out work to whom he pleases can ever know where he stands? If he submits to one illegal demand, what will be the limit of the demands made upon him? He is no more free in any proper sense than the employee. He is blackmailed, as the employee is enslaved. But even in New York there are people who are ready to stand up for their rights, and, when they do, the courts will uphold them in it.

The New Jersey Legislature has but a few days remaining in which to show the people that there is some excuse for its existence, as it is agreed that final adjournment will not be delayed longer than next week. That the session up to this date has been wholly barren of results is admitted. With only three Democrats in the Senate and four in the Assembly, the responsibility for the character of the session is easily placed. That the political tone in Trenton has been lowered since last winter is evident to any observer. The Governor has "set the pace" for the law-makers in the character of some of his principal nominations, and the detesters of "magazine politics" have rushed after him pell-mell. The chairman of the railroad committee of the House has been rebuked more than once by having bills taken out of his possession, but we do not recall any of these "popular" measures that have reached the Governor. The test of the winter's work will come on the votes on the constitutional amendments. Not many new laws are needed in the State, and the law-makers will be thanked rather than criticised for not swelling the folios of the statute-book. But the changes demanded in the State Constitution promise so much for the good of the people that to defeat them will be a real misfortune. There are more ways than one to bring about this defeat. There is but one way to secure their speedy ratification, and that is, to send them before the people—all of them—just as they were passed by the Legislature last year.

The great Leadville strike which has been declared off after a loss of $4,000,000 to the mine-owners and as much more to the strikers, and the killing of at least a dozen human beings, was begun about the middle of June, 1896. The ceremony of declaring it off was quite as futile as any part of the affair, since the mines have been in full operation for several weeks with hands obtained from other parts of the country. The strike had its origin in a demand that a very limited number of unskilled laborers, working on the dumps at Leadville at $2.50 per day, should receive the same wages as skilled laborers, $3 per day. Even this demand was not made by the Leadville miners in the first instance, but by some walking delegates from the Cœur d'Alene region who were out on a tour of inspection, and who made a visit to Leadville, where they found the anomalous condition prevailing that common laborers were receiving fifty cents per day less than skilled laborers. The Leadville Miners' Union had no idea how infamous this practice was until the Cœur d'Alene men told them. The walking-delegates assured them that the demand for equalization had been conceded at Cœur d'Alene, and hence there could be no doubt that it would be conceded at Leadville. So the demand was made, and when it was refused the strike was ordered, with all the loss of money, all the bloodshed and loss of employment that we know of. The poor men who allowed themselves to be led into this fatal blunder have known for weeks that their places had been taken by new hands, but they kept up a pretence of a strike in the vain expectation of being taken back en masse. When that expectation failed and the contributions from outside began to grow slender and the miners' children began to cry for bread, there was nothing to be done but to surrender.

The tone which the English Conservatives hold towards the Liberals when the latter want to be informed of the Government's plans and intentions respecting Crete and Greece and Turkey, is one of pained and impatient superiority. This is especially Balfour's tone. Why do the Liberals ask about these high matters of foreign policy? Do they not boast themselves Little Englanders? Are they not by choice and training merely parochial statesmen? Then let them leave the Tories to conduct all these international affairs in their own imperial fashion. These cool assumptions were eloquently resented by John Morley in a speech at Oxford on February 20. It was indeed, he confessed, the historic Liberal policy to avoid fussy meddling with foreign nations, but what party ever did more to expose and correct international injustice and oppression than the Liberal party of England? What political leaders ever showed more prescience in questions of foreign policy than the great Liberal leaders? Lord Salisbury has now elegantly confessed that, in the Crimean war, England laid her money on the wrong horse. But Cobden and Bright put their money on the right horse. When half of England bet on the wrong horse again in our civil war, Cobden and Bright once more picked the winner. Yet these are the men, theirs the party, charged with caring nothing for international affairs, and unable to see beyond their own noses. Who but a parochial statesman and Little Englander, Mr. Gladstone, opened the eyes of Great Britain and the world to the tyranny of the Bourbons in Naples, and to the system of rapine and murder practised by the Turk in Bulgaria, and called government? Mr. Morley had good ground for asserting that "some of us whom they call Little Englanders have given a steadier attention to foreign affairs, and are better informed as to movements in foreign lands, than these gentlemen who always remind one of the lines, 'Ignorance delivered brawling judgments unashamed on all things all day long.'"

A case involving copyright in an unusual way was lately before the Paris courts. At the time of Zola's latest candidacy for the Academy, a pamphlet was got up by one M. Laporte, entitled "Zola contre Zola." It consisted of extracts, without a word of comment, from the novelist's writings, the effort being evidently to bring together a rare collection of Zola's choicest ordure. The aim was, of course, to show that Zola, the muck-raking novelist, was the chief opponent of Zola, the would-be Academician. Zola's publisher at once brought suit for infringement of copyright, as the extracts were republished without permission. But the Tribunal of the Seine held that there had been no infringement, inasmuch as M. Laporte's intention was "not to reproduce fraudulently the literary property of another, but to bring out in high relief in the work of the author of the Rougon-Macquart novels its profoundly demoralizing character, and, consequently, the impossibility that the French Academy should admit to its ranks the writer who had produced it." The court saw, however, the need of qualifying its decision so as not to allow any one to produce, for example, the works of Victor Hugo in order to prove that he was a great poet or a good man. Accordingly, the court gave it as one of the reasons for acquitting M. Laporte that his pamphlet did not yield "a complete or even a partial notion" of any given book of Zola's. If it had done so, copyright would have been infringed. But the mélange of extracts, without cohesion or connection, did not exceed the rights of a critic. It will be remembered that a case involving somewhat similar issues is now before the English courts.

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CONGRESS AND ITS APPROPRIATIONS.

Now that last session's appropriation bills have been extracted from the chaos of legislation with which the Senate closed its work, it has become possible to figure up how much the session has done for the "economy" so fervently professed at the opening of the Fifty-fourth Congress. The story is told by Chairman Cannon of the appropriations committee, and it is pitiful enough. The Fifty-third Congress, Democratic in both its branches, made sufficiently poor show of reducing public expenditure, but it did accomplish something. Each of the Congresses under Mr. Harrison had run up appropriations exceeding a billion dollars; the Democratic Congress from 1893 to 1895 at least cut down the aggregate to $989,239,205. But the Republican Congress whose final session expired last week managed to raise this total to $1,043,437,018, the largest sum placed to the reckoning of any Congress in our history since the war.

In order to understand the actual character of this draft on the public purse, it should be mentioned that while the annual Government revenue steadily declined, between 1893 and 1896, by $52,241,153, with a further decrease, up to date in the present fiscal year, of nearly $17,000,000, the total annual appropriations have increased, since 1895, by $25,872,762. It should be noticed furthermore that while the Democratic Fifty-third Congress, partly by increased revenue, but largely also by lighter appropriations, had reduced the annual deficit from $69,803,260 in 1894 to $25,203,245 last year, their Republican successors instantly went to work heaping up fresh extravagances, until the deficit for the present fiscal year, with three and a half months still remaining to be heard from, has reached already upwards of $50,000,000. Regarding this reckless dissipation of public funds, with the Treasury continually embarrassed, Mr. Cannon speaks with proper frankness. He admits that the appropriations are "in excess of the legitimate demands of the public service," and openly charges the Senators with "adding many old claims, some of them of questionable and doubtful character." Mr. Sayers, reporting for the minority of the committee on appropriations, notices further that, in the river-and-harbor bill which passed a year ago over President Cleveland's veto, one work involving $1,000,000 expenditure has been rejected since as worthless by the War Department, while another appropriation of $4,500;000 has been subsequently placed for half that sum. All this continuing expenditure was loaded upon the present fiscal year.

Mr. Cannon has two explanations for this growing extravagance: excessive estimates by the executive and defective rules of Congress. He affirms that Mr. Carlisle's original estimate for the session's appropriations was actually reduced by Congress. This may be true. The present practice, which, in our judgment, is wholly wrong, is for the Administration merely to lump together department estimates, to add continuing and permanent appropriations, and then to leave the work of equalizing or reducing to the committees. This practice, as we have said, is wrong. The executive ought to be in constant touch with the committees on appropriation, and ought to be able, even before the bill is reported to the House, to expose such swindles as were incorporated in the river-and-harbor bill of 1896. But, rightly or wrongly, such a plan has not been and is not now the rule of legislation. Congress sufficiently understands the Treasury estimates to be preliminary only. The legislative body cannot absolve itself from blame on the ground that it innocently accepted the department estimates as final. As for the work of Congress on its own account, Mr. Cannon is frank enough. The bills are scattered, he explains, among eight separate committees. They are considered with no attempt at mutual responsibility, without the slightest reference to the revenue-raising plans of the ways and means committee; in the one house expert "log-rolling," and in the other "senatorial courtesy," add successively to the heap. When to this is joined the fact that the President must either approve an appropriation measure as a whole, or throw it out entirely, the course of events might easily be pictured in advance.

Mr. Cannon's remedies are the return of all appropriation bills to one committee for their first consideration, and the establishment of a congressional tribunal to consider all the special claims with which appropriation bills are nowadays loaded down, and which have no proper standing in such measures. With both these propositions we are heartily in accord; but whether either would curb the propensity of Congress to extravagance, we doubt. One committee is better able to construct an economical and reasonable measure than are eight committees; but because this one committee could bar out the spendthrifts and the log-rollers it does not follow that it would do so. Excision of the jobbery of private claims would doubtless reduce the aggregate appropriations; but Congress could in a day tack on a fresh provision to the regular measure which would make the claim appropriations petty by comparison. We believe, in short, that only organized party pressure, applied by the strongest leaders of Congress, will check this foolish waste. The Congressman who wishes to bleed the Treasury must be informed that there are larger interests to be considered than his village court-houses, pension agents, and contractor acquaintances in the lobby. We beg to warn the leaders of the coming session that they cannot too soon begin this work of coercion and suppression. The tariff-builders are busily at work to add, as they expect, some forty or fifty millions to the revenue. Whether the methods they are using will achieve their ends or not, is something of a question. But if they do succeed in making good the present deficit, through increase in the revenue, how long do they imagine Congress will delay in adding another twenty-five millions to the appropriation bills, creating another deficit, as was the case in 1896 and 1897? Is it to be supposed that a greedy congressional spendthrift will grow suddenly economical merely because he sees a larger annual fund on which to draw? If so, he will be a notable exception in the community of spendthrifts. We present these queries, with all due respect, for the leaders of the House to ponder.

WALLOWING IN THE TARIFF MIRE AGAIN.

THE McKinley-Dingley tariff programme is at last before Congress and the country. The President's message and the bill reported are near of kin. They are, in fact, twin "brothers of Satan," as the Koran calls spendthrifts. But it is to the Christian Scriptures that one must turn for an adequate characterization of the action which is now proposed to the Republican party by its leaders, and which is nothing other than the dog returning to his vomit again, and the sow that was washed to her wallowing in the mire.

We are sorely disappointed in President McKinley's message. This is not alone because he omitted to say a word about the great issue on which he was elected, and to which there is the most urgent need of Congress giving speedy attention. That omission may be repaired later, and we acknowledge Mr. McKinley's right to put the question of revenue first. But what he says about revenue is both weak and disingenuous, and the only programme discernible in his message is one of public extravagance mounting higher and higher. What else can be meant by his call for "ample revenues" for "the prompt payment of liberal pensions"? Are we to have still more profligate pension bills? The present pensions have always been paid promptly. No one has proposed to cut them down. It is impossible, therefore, to see in the President's words anything but an invitation to reckless expenditure and to a fresh pension orgy. But Mr. McKinley's use of figures to prove that his own tariff bill of 1890 was a success as a producer of revenue, is a petty juggle of which he should be ashamed. There is no secret about the way Secretary Foster forced a balance. But for his using the $54,000,000 bank-note redemption fund, which had always been held as a trust fund in the Treasury, there would have been a deficit of $52,000,000 in 1893, instead of a

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nominal surplus of $2,000,000. In fact, Secretary Foster, in his testimony before the ways and means committee, on February 25, 1893, insisted that an increase of $50,000,000 a year in revenue was absolutely essential to Treasury solvency. The new McKinley bill may produce sufficient revenue, but it is an historical fact that the old one did not. Even a President's message cannot alter the facts.

Of the new bill itself, as reported and expounded by Mr. Dingley, we can today speak only of the broad features. As for the agricultural schedules, we may take the word of that good, but now disgusted, Republican authority, the Philadelphia *Ledger*, that they are only a fresh attempt "to hoodwink the farmer." The high duties of the metal schedules, on crockery and glassware, on wood and jute and linen, are a ghastly farce, from the point of view of revenue, and constitute a standing invitation to domestic manufacturers to form a Trust and exact the uttermost farthing from the consumer. But it is the wool schedule which is the most nefarious. It was the original McKinley wool schedule which did more than anything else to wreck the Republican party in 1890. Of the Dingley schedule it is sufficient to say that it is worse than the McKinley schedule. By a trick of classification the rates are made actually higher. How this was brought about is no secret. This schedule was crammed down Mr. Dingley's throat. He is himself a woollen manufacturer. He knows that all the woollen manufacturers are aghast and furious at these outrageous rates. The woollen manufacture is now on a better basis in this country than ever before. Free wool has made possible the production of whole lines of goods never before attempted here. But the high rates on wool threaten to end all that. Why did Mr. Dingley surrender? He was raided by the Westerners. Three or four Populist and free-silver Republican votes in the Senate were to be had for the bribe of high rates on wool, and so reason and decency and the woollen manufacture had to be thrown to the winds.

Mr. Dingley's estimate of the revenue to be derived from his bill will make Congress sympathize with the old exciseman who resigned when Gladstone was Chancellor of the Exchequer, and who said that his head was simply breaking down under the proposals of his chief. First, Mr. Dingley figures out a total increased revenue of $112,000,000. He stands off and admires this for a while, and then regretfully admits that his figures are too large. Then he begins whittling them down at an alarming rate, and finally claims $70,000,000. This sum he hopes to get, provided wicked American manufacturers and consumers do not help themselves to free raw materials and to cheaper goods while they may. Of this lower estimate it is sufficient to say that he figures $11,000,000 increase from the duty on wool the first year. Men in the wool trade say he will be lucky if he gets $1,000,000. Mills have not been borrowing money to stock up with free wool solely for the pleasure of buying dutiable wool in vast quantities. He also estimates an increase of $14,000,000 on woollen goods—this from a bill which is especially designed to shut out woollen goods altogether. The truth is, that this is all the wildest guesswork. As a revenue bill, the Dingley tariff is as truly a leap into the dark as was the McKinley tariff. Senators Aldrich and Allison were $40,000,000 out of the way as to the revenue under the McKinley tariff the first year. Mr. Dingley may easily be as much now. Meanwhile, Congress will jump at the assurance that there is to be money enough for everybody, and will, encouraged by the President, shoot up the appropriations so as to make a deficit even if Mr. Dingley's hopes of revenue are fulfilled.

It is our deliberate judgment that the Dingley bill is a fraud on the party and the country. Already it is clear, from Republican revolt, that the party did not expect and does not want such a bill. Upon the country it comes like the snapping of a trap. The only thing comparable to it is our electing Platt Senator when we thought we were saving the country from Bryanism. The protective-tariff beneficiaries took advantage, just as Platt did, of the nation's absorption in saving its honor, and now come in to exact the pound of flesh for which they bargained. But the bill is not yet passed. The truth about it will be told in Congress by Republicans, if they do not lose all their manhood—at any rate by Democrats. It will certainly be proclaimed in the Republican press. For our part, we shall spare not in exposing tariff iniquities in 1897 any more than we did in 1890.

A GREAT STEP ONWARD.

We have been much pleased with a bill introduced into the House of Representatives at the last session of Congress by Mr. Gillett of Massachusetts. It is evidently part of the great wave of moral reform which is sweeping over the legislatures of our country, and which has led, even in Kansas, to vigorous efforts for the enactment of the Ten Commandments, the open violation of which has long been a great national affliction and disgrace. The present bill is due to the decision of the Supreme Court that Congress has no jurisdiction over Trusts, that they must be dealt with by the States. Mr. Gillett has considered how to get round this decision, and has found a complete remedy in the jurisdiction of Congress over interstate commerce. He has accordingly framed the following important measure, and it has been favorably reported by the learned judiciary committee. We may say here that reports that Mr. Gillett and the judiciary committee are all under age are infamous and probably Mugwump slanders. Here is the bill:

"Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That any property owned or manufactured under any contract or by any Trust or combination or pursuant to any conspiracy forbidden by the laws of a State, and being in the course of transportation from such State to another State, the District of Columbia, a Territory, or a foreign country, or to such State from another State, the District of Columbia, a Territory, or a foreign country, shall be forfeited to the United States, and may be seized and condemned by like proceedings as are provided by law for the forfeiture, seizure, and condemnation of property imported into the United States contrary to law; and every person who shall, knowing that any property was owned or manufactured in any of the ways above described, transport it, or cause or order or contract for its transportation as above described, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof be punished by a fine not exceeding $20,000, or by imprisonment not exceeding five years, or both: Provided, that nothing herein contained shall be held to interfere with any proceedings in a State court for the violation of the law of such State."

We hate to criticise such a measure at all, but we feel bound to say that this does not go far enough. Why should its provisions be confined to "property" manufactured by a Trust or combination? Why not extend it to *any* property produced by processes, or contracts, or arrangements condemned either by the State law or the still higher law of morality? Why, in fact, is it not made to cover all property produced by bad men, whose motives are low, and whose aims are, in all probability, prejudicial to the public welfare? In our humble opinion, the transmission of such property to another State by any public carrier, or otherwise, should be prohibited, and the property, if necessary, seized *in transitu*.

Suppose a man is manufacturing a product, and paying his workmen and workwomen only sweating wages; suppose it is a notorious fact that his relations with some of his female operatives are illicit; suppose he is producing really an adulterated or shoddy article and is offering it to the public as genuine; suppose his daily language to his work-people is profane, and suppose his home is made a hell by the violence of his temper—should such a man be allowed to make use of the State boats and trains for the filling of his coffers? We think not, and we feel sure that Mr. Gillett will, on consideration, agree with us. Public carriers do not exist for the enrichment of such a man. He has no more right to the advantages of interstate commerce than a wild animal. We would seize his goods as soon as he shipped them, unload them at the first station, under the eye of a pious inspector, who should be sternly prohibited from accepting money for letting them pass, and should be appointed only after a civil-service examination. We should also apply to every express agent and driver, and even to engineers and firemen of locomotives, the penal provisions of the bill directed against those who have guilty

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knowledge of the wickedness of the owner of the goods. We would fine them all $20,000 apiece, *and* (not *or*) imprison them for five years. The alternative of fine *or* imprisonment would be much too good for them, and there are few express agents who would feel a fine of $20,000.

One word more. We little thought we should ever see the day when the Legislature of our country would take Mr. Gillett's noble stand for the right. We might well say, Now let us depart in peace. But we will not say it until we make one other suggestion. Should this bill be put in operation and work successfully, why should it not be extended to the passenger traffic? Old cynics will laugh when we propose that the trains or boats of our country should be reserved for the righteous, but we shall not by that be deterred from making the suggestion. Why, then, should the passage of bad men from State to State be permitted? Why should persons who, knowing that men engaged every day of their lives in violating the laws of God and the laws of the State are about to make little trips into the adjoining States, fail to inform the proper authorities of the fact, be allowed to keep it secret, or even to grin over it? Why should our great State machinery of transportation be placed at the service of every rascal who chooses to buy a ticket at the station? Why is not every ticket-office also a moral bureau, and why does not every train which rolls through our smiling fields carry only the pure and good? Consider what an engine of righteousness our railroad system would then become, and how rapidly this confinement of the wicked to their domiciles and the wide diffusion of the good would change the moral aspect of our country! Mr. Gillett is building better than he knows. He is simply a pioneer in a new field. He is preparing to make the material progress of the world moral progress also, and make our greatest inventions the servants of loftier ethics.

CECIL RHODES, PIRATE.

THE examination of the Right Hon. Cecil J. Rhodes by the Select Parliamentary Commission, which was brought to a close week before last, was extraordinary in many ways. It was extraordinary for the evidence brought to light; for the cool effrontery with which Rhodes avowed his own baseness; for the sympathy with him, as man and plotter, openly shown by the Prince of Wales and Secretary Chamberlain; for Rhodes's defiant assertion that he would again conspire against a friendly state, only next time he would see to it that his conspiracy turned out successfully; and for his calm expectation, in which the general public seems to share, that no punishment whatever will be visited upon his crimes, but that he will go back to South Africa a greater hero than ever.

The essential parts of the evidence given have been sent by cable to this country, but the significance of the whole can be taken in only by reading the verbatim report of Rhodes's examination. Before it began, the only evidence from him the world had had was his absolute denial, given through Sir Hercules Robinson, of all knowledge of the Jameson raid. Even after Rhodes's hurried trip to England last year, and his conference with Mr. Chamberlain, the latter declared in the Commons: "To the best of my knowledge and belief, everybody, Mr. Rhodes, the Chartered Company, the reform committee of Johannesburg, and the High Commissioner, were all equally ignorant of the intention or action of Dr. Jameson." But now Cecil Rhodes nonchalantly informs the committee that the raid was his own from beginning to end. He planned it, he financed it, he ordered it, he hoped for its success up to the last hour. After Jameson started, he refused to stop him, though he could have done so. When the High Commissioner prepared his proclamation declaring Jameson an outlaw, Rhodes persuaded him to hold it back for one day. In brief, Rhodes, as he now coolly confesses, was all along the real plotter, the real raider; Jameson his tool and victim.

Nor was the piratical raid a sudden burst of anger. It was deliberately organized for at least a year beforehand. The plot was extraordinarily complicated. The building of the railroad to Mafeking and the transfer of the strip of land along the Transvaal border from the Bechuanaland Protectorate to Cape Colony were parts of the scheme. Thus Rhodes made the Colonial Office his unwitting instrument. With similar audacity did he use the Chartered Company. No less than $300,000 of that company's funds was illegally drawn out to buy arms and equipment for the attack on the Transvaal; this sum, however, Mr. Rhodes afterwards repaid out of his own pocket. In fact, the whole movement was his in conception and execution. This he now confesses, or, rather, glories in. That he should have used his position as Prime Minister of the Cape and manager of the Chartered Company (he admits that he practically was "the company") to conspire against a friendly state, does not appear to him wrong. It was not diplomatic, it did not exactly square with all the niceties of international law (these things seem very amusing to him), but it never occured to him that he was doing anything but his duty as an Imperial Englishman. He would do the same thing again in similar circumstances; only, another time, he would make sure of success.

The infinite meanness to which this great-hearted expander of England so often stooped in the course of his plans to make his country great and glorious, was brought out again and again in his examination. His leaving poor Jameson to bear the ignominy and to stand trial, without a word, was a piece of baseness almost unparalleled. He now justifies it by saying that too many people and too large interests were involved for him to be able to speak without imprudence. Then there was that famous letter of the women and children of Johannesburg praying Jameson to come to their rescue. It was this which made the Poet Laureate dithyrambic. It was this which was set up as the only cause and sufficient excuse for the knight-errantry of the raiders. But what are the facts about the letter, as shown on the examination? Why, it was a cooked-up letter to start with, had been in Jameson's pocket for a month and ten days, and was then cabled to England by Cecil Rhodes himself, with a forged date. Sir Hercules Robinson was almost as shamefully used by Rhodes as was Jameson himself, and the Johannesburgers were deceived by him cruelly. All told, this magnificent and swelling Imperialist appears to have played a consistent rôle of petty trickery and betrayal, of deceit and corruption, all through, and to have mixed up personal and pecuniary ends with his plans of conquest most unblushingly.

Cecil Rhodes is, in truth, the perfect type and flowering of a form of statesmanship and so-called patriotism which is too common in our day and met with in too many lands. He is nothing but a pirate in a high hat and patent-leather shoes. Laws and treaties are but jests to him. Anything he covets—be it another's land, mines, or country—is fairly his if he can get it. Rhodes wanted to "take" the Transvaal because he "needs" it. Right and justice, honor and humanity, are things to smile at. These are the sentiments, this the huge imposture, behind the clamor in so many countries for territorial expansion, of empire and colonies and islands, simply for expansion's sake. It is something to have the great exponent of these doctrines of selfishness and lawlessness stripped of his romance, and shown to be the cruel, treacherous, reckless adventurer he is. But his counterpart exists in nearly every powerful nation of the modern world, and, whether known as Jingo, Federationist, Annexationist, or plain filibuster and pirate, is to be fought by all those who place good faith and law above lands and mines and guano beds and sugar plantations, and plenty of ships and offices, and enough for everybody and something left over.

PROF. DICEY ON COMMON CITIZENSHIP FOR AMERICA AND ENGLAND.

LONDON, February 28, 1897.

ON Friday last, February 26, in a public lecture delivered at All Souls College by Prof. Dicey, the Vinerian Professor of English Law, "A Proposal for the Common Citizenship of both branches of the English People" was developed and defended before a large and representative gathering of members of Oxford University. After deprecating the off-

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hand condemnation of any such proposal as an absurdity, Prof. Dicey surveyed briefly certain noteworthy signs of a widespread desire to recognize the unity and to extend the power of the whole English-speaking race. The sentiment of the unity of the English people was, he said, beginning to take a more concrete and profitable form than questionable declarations as to the superiority and ultimately certain predominance of the Anglo Saxon race. Apart from the stimulation in England of a friendly interest in the well-being of English colonies, there had been on both sides of the Atlantic a unanimity, startling to politicians, in condemning war between the United States and England. Arbitration had already decided questions which, a century ago, would have led to war. A permanent tribunal for the decision of disputes between two kindred nations was ultimately sure of establishment, whatever might be the momentary outcome of actual negotiations. Without believing that arbitration could dispose of all international disputes, we might reasonably maintain that the greater number of questions likely to arise between England and the United States could be referred to a law court, by disputants who entertain similar ideas of law and of legal procedure.

Though much current talk of Anglo-Saxon greatness be foolish, though many schemes of unity be Utopian, yet popular catchwords and Utopias are signs of the trend of opinion, and these in question indicate a prevalent sense of national unity which condemns and reprobates as civil war an appeal to the arbitrament of arms by the different branches of the English people. The lecturer's proposal was, he said, an attempt to give practical effect to the widespread and growing belief in the unity of English-speaking peoples. It was that England and the United States should, by concurrent legislation, institute a common citizenship for Englishmen and Americans; that an act of the Imperial Parliament should make every citizen of the United States, during the continuance of peace between England and America, a British subject, and that an act of Congress should make every British subject, during the continuance of peace between America and England, a citizen of the United States. Technically he argued that such acts would suffice; but practically a treaty providing for the passing of such acts would no doubt be necessary. There was no need to dwell on qualifications and limitations in detail, which would certainly be introduced into such acts. After hinting at some of these details, Prof. Dicey insisted that his proposal was not designed to effect anything in the least resembling political unity. His plan simply aimed at making each citizen of the one country also a citizen of the other. Every American citizen, on landing at Liverpool, would, under his proposal, be in the same position as to civil and political rights occupied by an inhabitant of Victoria who might have landed from the same boat at the same time; and an Englishman stepping for the first time on American soil would stand, as to his civil and political rights, in the position of an American citizen who, having been born abroad, had for the first time landed in the United States.

This proposal the lecturer proceeded to defend as (1) a feasible one, (2) one of comparatively small practical effect, but wholly good, so far as it went, (3) greatly beneficial in its indirect and moral effects. It was practicable, because it required no revolutionary change in the Constitution of either country to found a common citizenship for both. Two short acts—one by Congress and the other by Parliament—would accomplish it. The assertion of its practicability rested, of course, on the assumed desire for it on both sides. If the wish were prevalent among a majority in England and America, no substantial difficulty would stand in the way of giving effect to it, because the common law of both countries is the same, making the acquisition of nationality depend, generally speaking, on the place of a person's birth. To the objection that no such wish has yet arisen, the lecturer replied by saying that neither men nor nations desired an end until it was set before them as an object for attainment. And then he added: "I shall have done enough if I have proposed an object which by degrees the best citizens both of England and of America may come to desire, and have shown that, if they wish for it, it is easily attainable."

Perhaps the most striking points in Prof. Dicey's argument were those next given to show that the practical effects of a common citizenship such as he had in mind would be small, revolutionary though the proposal might sound. He began by accentuating the fact that, under his proposal, America and England would in no sense become one country, and would not be entering into partnership or alliance as regards other Powers. As matters now stand in England, and for that matter throughout the British Empire, aliens belonging to a country at peace with England enjoy nearly all the civil rights of British subjects. They can trade in England, are protected by British law, can own land, and cannot, except by a special act, be expelled from England. An alien cannot own a British ship, though he may hold shares in a company which owns ships. An American in England would hardly feel that he had gained a perceptible increase in his civil rights under the proposed common citizenship. In some English colonies this might be somewhat different. On the other hand, the position of aliens in the United States, he said, was, theoretically at least, inferior to their position in the United Kingdom. Common law and the varying laws of the several States governed their right to hold and to inherit real estate, but State legislation had on the whole tended to improve their position. Englishmen in America would thus gain rather greater civil advantages than Americans in England by an interchange of citizenship, but in neither case would the ordinary transactions of life, outside the sphere of politics, be substantially affected. An Englishman in New York undoubtedly feels that he has pretty much the same rights as a citizen.

Not civil, but political, rights would be affected. The political status of the American in England would become precisely that of his grandfather, who before 1776 was a citizen, say of New York or of Massachusetts, but also a subject of the British crown. He would be able to vote for a member of Parliament, to sit in Parliament, and, if fortune favored, to become a Cabinet minister or Premier. He might aspire to the House of Lords, just as a British subject might, under the proposal, aspire to a seat in the Senate. On the other hand, he would be liable to be tried in England for a limited number of criminal offences though committed in the United States, but the common law doctrine that crime is territorial could and would set a strict limit here. The whole question of treason and of political offences would have to be carefully and specially considered with other details easily adjustable, supposing the existence in both countries of a desire for common citizenship. If every American now in England or any of her colonies were, by act of Parliament, made a British subject, he might be long in realizing any change. Suppose we could say that every American in England would, by act of Parliament, become a British subject after the 1st of January, 1901, it would be startling, but surely not alarming. Americans would enter Parliament, but we do not regret the presence there of men who by race, language, and religion are much less closely connected with us. We need not, said Prof. Dicey, be startled at the thought of seeing a citizen of New York, or of Massachusetts, seated at Westminster by the side of a Parsee or a Bengalee. Our liberal laws of naturalization make it impossible to maintain that political life is to be open only to natural-born British subjects. Here, with an unmistakable reference to the recent candidature of Mr. Sinclair (Schlesinger), who was naturalized while standing for Parliament and denouncing aliens, Prof. Dicey said, "Without yielding to any insular prejudice, it is allowable to confess that one would as soon have seen seated in Parliament . . . any of the eminent citizens who have been accredited to the Crown as ministers of the United States, as a gentleman whose zeal for British honor is undoubted, but who sits in Parliament in virtue of a certificate of naturalization on which the ink was scarcely dry on the day of his election."

The direct effects of common citizenship, he continued, might be less for an Englishman in America than for an American in England. Many rights and liabilities in America connected themselves with State citizenship rather than with being a citizen of the United States. An Englishman's civil rights would scarcely, if at all, be altered. He would gain the political rights of voting for a member of Congress, of sitting in Congress or in the Cabinet; he could not aspire to the Presidency. The naturalization laws in America appear, on the face of them, a greater safeguard for the standard of citizenship than the English, and might seem to constitute an argument, from the American point of view, against the present proposal. But the lecturer maintained that they were by no means evenly enforced, and, therefore, largely served to bring newly arrived emigrants of weak character into the undesirable companionship of political managers. The aliens whom these laws chiefly excluded were the very class of foreigners who most deserved to become citizens. This opinion he echoed from the lips of an American of some eminence, who maintained years ago that the abolition of all checks on naturalization would, as things stood when he spoke, be a benefit. Accordingly he argued that restrictions on naturalization which are, in the opinion of Americans themselves, of dubious value, were not worth weighing against any serious advantages to be obtained from the common citizenship of the English-speaking peoples.

Turning now to his third point, that the proposed common citizenship would be greatly beneficial in its indirect and moral effects, Prof. Dicey urged that community of race, of religious and moral beliefs, and of political ideals connected Englishmen and Americans with links which it was impossible to break. Their material interests did not clash. The openly proclaimed fact that neither division of the race could be induced to attack the other by any provocation falling short of the

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causes justifying civil war, would increase the material power both of England and of America. And this fact would be made plain by a scheme of common citizenship, as by an Arbitration Treaty. The lecturer now spoke of what individuals in England or America could contribute to the welfare of English-speaking peoples under a scheme of common citizenship.

"Let me take one example," said he, "known to most of us. Whether Mr. Godkin is at this moment a British subject or an American citizen, I am totally ignorant; what I am certain of is, that the writer who, landing, I believe, in America as technically a foreigner, has by talent, energy, and, above all, character, done more than any one man to raise the character of American politics, would, should he ever return to the United Kingdom, be able to give us invaluable aid in the solution of some of the most difficult questions which demand the consideration of English statesmanship. Whoever will read the 'Problems of Democracy' will assuredly admit that its author might in many respects supply in England the place left vacant in the world of speculative politics by the death of Mill and of Maine."

He then spoke of the late Mr. Benjamin as one who, "unless common rumor was mistaken," came near obtaining a seat on the bench, after achieving the very highest eminence at the bar.

An intimate link uniting America and England (including her colonies and dependencies) was the prevalence of English common law. Upon this theme the Professor was most eloquent, and cited with equal admiration the work done by Judge Holmes and by Sir Frederick Pollock and Prof. Maitland, finally dwelling upon the non-political nature of his proposal for common citizenship, and upon the appropriateness of such a non-partisan theme for an Oxford Professor of English Law. After an interesting survey of the possibilities for good latent in the Monroe Doctrine, and a further development of the moral and material advantages indirectly to be compassed through establishing a common citizenship, the lecturer argued that the present time was especially propitious for entertaining and discussing such a proposal.

Having reference to the ticklish question of ratification by the Senate of the Arbitration Treaty, he distinguished between the moment which was accidentally unpropitious and the time which was essentially propitious. The fact of common ties between the English-speaking peoples was in men's thoughts, and a recognition of it might naturally issue in the desire that states closely connected by race, by community of history, or by historical sympathies, should also communicate to each other the rights of citizenship. The notion of a similar union in citizenship of the Latin races should not offend English patriotism. Here followed a lucid and remarkable account of common citizenship in the German fatherland, and of the part which it had played in building up the German power. The present time was propitious for drawing closer ties between England and America because, both countries being strong, it could not be alleged that either is seeking aid or protection. The fancied antagonism between a republic and a constitutional monarchy had vanished. Slavery and the visible imminence of the "irrepressible conflict" had disappeared. The memories of the contest between England and her colonies had passed away. We all knew that George the Third and his supporters were not consciously bent on tyranny, but acted under a conviction that the independence of the colonies involved the ruin of England. Prof. Dicey declared that the national independence of the United States was a benefit to mankind, because it was well that the English people should have developed the English form of republicanism, and said that what he was now advocating was an attempt to preserve the good, while undoing all the evil, which flowed from the contest with the colonies. The lecturer now paid a feeling tribute to the peace-making and reconciling effects of the action of Queen Victoria and her adviser, who made it possible for Lincoln to steer through the *Trent* affair without a war, arguing that her reign was therefore a peculiarly propitious one for close union. He then gave a really powerful picture of the greatness of Lincoln, whose civilian guidance of the American war he strikingly paralleled by the career of Lord Canning in India during the Mutiny. Finally, his discourse ended with the cordial words used by King George in welcoming Mr. Adams as Minister of the United States of America to the court of St. James's.

LOUIS DYER.

THE MOTIVE OF GREEK INTERVENTION.

ROME, February 24, 1897.

THE startling turn which the Cretan affair has taken in the shelling of the Greco-Cretan forces at Canea has reached you in all its details long ere this, but the part of the history which the telegrams cannot tell is indispensable to the understanding of it. The intervention of Greece, after it had become known that the Powers had decided to put an end to the disorders in Crete by compulsory modifications in the government of the island, was not merely useless, but disastrous, and the object of it was, not to secure the independence of Crete, but, on the contrary, to prevent the independence by making the annexation of the island to Greece a foregone conclusion. If Greece had desired to associate herself with the Powers in their effort to reform the Greek provinces of Turkey, in the simple and modest manner befitting the position of a tiny state which owes its existence, and every foot of ground over which its rule is extended, to the protection and sympathy of the great Powers, the way would have been to send a torpedo-boat with six marines to represent the Greek flag in the transaction. This could have done no harm, and would at least have conciliated the Powers. The audacious debarkation of a body of regular Greek troops when the Powers had already taken their positions on the question, was a distinct defiance of Europe, and a declaration on the part of Greece that she intended to contest the right of the great Powers to regulate the Eastern question.

Greece has never shown that she cared for the freedom of Crete, but, on the contrary, that she regarded the island as a means for the aggrandizement of the Hellenic kingdom. In the great insurrection of 1866-9, which many of your readers will remember, the Cretans, after three years of suffering and devastation such as the late history of the Turkish empire does not show the record of elsewhere, had finally worn out the repressive power of the Sultan, his finances and his military resources, and A'ali Pasha, the Grand Vizier, came to Crete to make an effort to conciliate the islanders. He brought these concessions: complete autonomy for the islanders, with the choice of a prince to be appointed for life and of their own unrestricted selection; a legislature of their election; exemption for five years from taxation, with minor privileges. The Cretans, under the advice of Gen. Ignatieff and the Greek committees, refused the concessions and held out for complete independence. A'ali Pasha, with whom I had full and most satisfactory explanations of the concessions to be granted, and who was most reasonable in his attitude towards the Cretans, was obliged to retire without having gained a point. Within three months the Greek Government sent over to the island a band of volunteers, under the command of an old brigand, Petropoulaki, who paraded the streets of Athens with ostentation, insulted the Turkish minister and provoked Turkey to a rupture of relations, openly embarked for Crete, and, on arrival, took command of the insurrectionary forces, and then, without firing a shot, surrendered the island to the Turkish authorities, and so put an end to the insurrection; not even an amnesty being secured for the exiled chiefs of the Cretans.

This infamous treason was deliberately committed by the Greek Prime Minister, Bulgaris, after full understanding with the Turkish diplomatic representative, the rupture being a part of the farce. The real motive was that, as the Powers would not consent to the annexation to Greece, it was considered good statesmanship to keep Crete in servitude as material for another and perhaps more complicated movement in the Turkish dominions. That the Russian Government was an accomplice in this crime does not relieve the King of Greece and the Ministry of Bulgaris from the charge of treachery to the Cretans. The King had, at the instigation of Russia, dismissed the Comoundouros Ministry and summoned Bulgaris, who was more pliant to the Russian scheme, to form a ministry which would consent to stop the insurrection; and the result was, that the Cretans, who had conquered the sympathies of Europe and practically their freedom, were ordered back to their old servitude for twenty-five years more, to suit the plans of Russia and the Russian party in Greece, and because the Powers then, as now, declined to give Crete to Greece. And now, as then, Greece prefers to defy the Powers which are the real friends of Greece, and plunge Crete into another internecine war, to prevent the liberation of Crete in any other form than that of annexation to Greece.

The motive, I repeat, is not the love of Cretan liberty, but the aggrandizement of Greece, and the Powers have taught the Greeks a lesson which has been rehearsed on other occasions with less severity, but which the Greeks would have learned before if they had been the intelligent people they have been supposed to be. In 1886, the present Prime Minister being then in power, the same game was tried for an extension on the northern frontier. The troops were sent to the frontier and fighting was actually carried on for several days between bands of volunteers armed by the Greek Ministry and supported by the regular troops, and hostilities were carried on against the Turkish outposts, without any declaration of war, but with magniloquent proclamations and threats against Turkey if the Powers did not give Greece some more territory. The result was the blockade of the Peiræus, which closed the agitation and permitted the Ministry to resign, with a flaming appeal to the nation, saying what it would have done if the Powers had not stopped it; the fact being that the Turkish general had his orders to cross the frontier if the provocation lasted another day, and march on Athens, which he would have done with no serious difficulty, since the

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Greek army lacked organization and even the shadow of discipline. Tricoupi came to power just in time to save Greece from a disaster, but, as the ranters of Athens said, only to prevent Greece from going to Constantinople. The Turks would have been in Athens in less than two weeks, there being on the frontier 40,000 men, many of whom were veterans of the Bulgarian war.

This time the Powers were agreed; for the danger to the peace of Europe, if Greece was permitted to play fast and loose with the elements of discord, was too great to be trifled with. Too great indulgence was shown to Greece, for the first attempt to send troops to Crete, after the Powers had decided to take the affairs of the island in hand, should have been stopped at the Peiræus; but, after the order to withdraw had been given in the name of the six treaty Powers, to have permitted so gross a violation of international law to be continued by Greece would have been to make Europe ridiculous and impotent, to have become the accomplice of Greece in the official filibustering, without even the form of a declaration of war on Turkey, and to let loose the elements of insurrection all over the empire. The success of Greece in seizing Crete would have been the signal for the general grab and the general mêlée which is exactly what the Powers are doing their best to prevent.

The Italian Government has joined the European concert with the conviction that it was the only course which would avoid a general war, and, with all the liberal Powers, has done so with the expressed determination to prevent Turkey from misgoverning the island any longer. It has declared that a real autonomy must be given to Crete, and that no Turkish pasha, under any denomination or cover, shall exercise any power, and that this autonomy shall be protected from intrigues from Athens as well as from Constantinople. The reasons for this absolute separation from Greece are various. In the first place, Crete cannot be governed from Athens, where the pressure of impecunious lawyers in hunt for places is too strong, and the Government too weak, to permit the island to be left at the command of a Government which is unable to maintain order at home. Then, the institutions in which all the turbulent Cretan chieftains have been bred are too widely different from those of the spurious and abortive Latin forms of government in Greece to permit the reconciliation of the system and the men, with the authority of which the Greek monarchy can dispose. The island feuds are savage and bloody, and the authority which can restrain them is not to be found in Athens, where there is not at the present moment a single statesman of even the third order; and with a weak control the local and religious antipathies would break out in worse disorders than ever were known under the Turks. In one of my last visits to Crete, in the régime of Photiades Pasha, a Christian (so-called) governor, with a Cretan diet and a police of Cretans of both religions in proportion to the population of both, there had been, the Governor informed me, 600 assassinations due to local feuds and intrigues, political and growing out of the elections, or out of village quarrels, mainly between men of the same religion, with a destruction of property in malice such as no insurrection had ever developed. Twenty thousand olive-trees had been cut down to injure the interests of opponents, and the gendarmerie, being local, either made no effort to restrain the disturbers of the peace, or took sides in the feuds. Even while I was there, came in every day reports of the ruin of proprietor after proprietor by the destruction of the olive orchards, which are the chief riches of the island.

To stop all this, the Governor must be a man whose authority cannot be attacked by intrigues at Athens, and he must have behind him the force of an international sanction, with a police which will not be the instrument of local quarrels. If, when order has been firmly established, the islanders (contrary to my conviction) should desire annexation to Greece, and the rights of the large minority of the Mussulmans can be conciliated, they must be allowed to have their own way, but not as the result of the Greek defiance of Europe and violation of the common usages of a civilized Power. Greece is an independent Power, though not an inch of territory has ever been won by Greek effort, and though her government has been one of the worst failures of European constitutionalism. If she declares war on Turkey she has only exercised a right, but to invade a possession of Turkey without the pretence of a formality or necessity, and especially when the Powers do not leave Turkey the power of reinforcing her army or retaliating by the invasion of Greece, cannot be permitted while there is the faintest pretext of international law, since Greece is the absolute creature of that law. Public opinion is strongly averse to the application of force to the filibustering army, in Italy as in England, but the lesson is a necessary one, and no one who cares for the chance of keeping the peace more than for the particular increment of Greece will do more than regret the necessity of the lesson. W. J. S.

MME. DE CHASTENAY.—III.

PARIS, February 25, 1897.

THERE has been a long interruption in publication between the first volume of the interesting memoirs of Mme. de Chastenay and the second. The first volume took us through the dramatic times of the Revolution and the troubled period of the Directory. In the second volume we find ourselves in the Empire: Napoleon has crowned himself, he has created the Legion of Honor, he has formed a household. Réal, who, we recall, was the benefactor and the most intimate friend of Mme. de Chastenay, "could not," she says, "show himself to us at first without blushing" with the new insignia of the Legion of Honor. "I found Garat at Fouché's [another friend of Mme. de Chastenay] with his coat tightly buttoned so that one could not perceive on the breast of a philosopher the sign of the vanity of a courtier; the cruel Fouché forced Garat to show it to me. In a few days, people accustomed themselves to it; after a few months, they began to envy it."

Already, as First Consul, Bonaparte had re-established some of the functions of a royal household; as Emperor, he created chamberlains and *dames du palais*. Fouché thought of Mme. de Chastenay for one of these places. She refused at first to entertain the idea; but, at the instance of her mother, she changed her mind. "I returned," she says, "to see Fouché, and told him I had changed my ideas; he spoke to the Emperor, who approved of his advice, and even spoke to him of the conversation with me which seemed to have struck him so much [the conversation at Châtillon in the month of May, 1795]; he spoke, as he did afterwards in several circumstances, of the *esprit* which he was good enough to attribute to me." Mme. de Chastenay had to make a visit to the Empress, in the palace of Saint Cloud.

"She came to me and told me that she had heard from the Prefect of Police that I had consented to accept a place as maid of honor; the Emperor was going away the next day, but I should be appointed on his return. The words gratitude and Majesty came with some difficulty from my lips. What I felt cannot be expressed, and, if I had seen a door open, I think I should have run away. I was going to be the follower of Mme. Bonaparte, of the wife of a man whose actions and character I had held in detestation for three years!"

The Emperor came back, and Mme. de Chastenay again saw the Empress. She was well received, but no further mention was made of the offer and of the half-promise which had been made to her. She had probably been represented by some as too closely allied with the Legitimists, who saw in Napoleon only the usurper, the murderer of the Duke d'Enghien; by others as too intimate with Réal, with Fouché, with the men of the Directory. "The fear of the influence which it was thought I should like to have, because I was imagined to be capable of using it, served as a pretext to put aside a woman who was represented to the Emperor as one of those *femmes d'esprit* whom he always feared, while incessantly annoyed by the insipidity of the others."

It is not to be wondered at if Mme. de Chastenay is slightly ironical in her description of the festivities at the coronation of Napoleon and Josephine.

"The great ceremony took place. I was not present, but I heard that the new Emperor, by assuming without dignity the airs of a conqueror, revolted those who were not won over to the new régime. It is remarkable that, at that time, the greatest opposition was manifested not by the partisans of the monarchy, but by the former friends of liberty. . . . Marshal Lefebvre bore on a cushion the sword of the general who had become an Emperor. The Marshal, during the whole ceremony, boasted vaingloriously of having been grenadier in the Guards when Louis XVI. was consecrated, of having been in the church at Reims and marched with the procession. I really believe that this reminiscence flattered his pride more than his function at the moment."

In the fifth chapter of this second volume, Mme. de Chastenay draws a portrait of Fouché which will be found interesting:

"Fouché was rather tall, thin, pale. In his youth his hair must have been blond. His eyes, very small, very close together, very red, were nevertheless very piercing, and his whole face was not wanting in 'physiognomy' and, when occasion required it, in a certain nobility. He spoke with ease; . . . very natural, with an air of depth, possessing some gayety and sometimes gleaming with intelligence, when he put on with seriousness an air of superiority to all men, all ranks, all opinions, all passions, and made you believe that he moved everything according to his calculations without being moved himself."

Fouché was accustomed to high offices, "to the ministry as a mode of life"; was fond of money and had succeeded in making a great fortune.

"Except on the days of a great and splendid display, his happiness consisted in living like a bourgeois who enjoys perhaps ten or twelve thousand francs income. His wife, who was passionately fond of him, and as jealous as if he were twenty years old, preferred this life of retreat. An aged relative of his wife, his secretary, who was an old Oratorian like himself, the governess of his daughter (a woman of *esprit*), his sons' tutor, some old Oratorians or subalterns—such was his only society, which amused itself the whole evening with the game

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of Boston; . . . such was during ten years of ministry the life of the man who frightened Europe and kept France under."

Mme. de Chastenay adds that, with all his talents, there was much of the charlatan in him. Minister of Police after the 18th Brumaire, he retained in his hands the fate of the émigrés; he rendered services to many, and had their names struck from the terrible list; his object was to secure creatures in all parties. He succeeded in becoming intimate with Mme. de Vaudémont, a Princess of Lorraine. He continued, however, to be in relation with the Jacobins; he knew how flexible they were, he employed them in many ways—in secret missions, as journalists; he paid handsomely for the verses of the renegades who sang the praises of the Emperor. He kept a large staff of spies, and he had spies in all ranks of society. Bonaparte never liked him, but always had need of him; he needed him on the 18th Brumaire, and at once made him minister; he never completely confided in him, but was afraid of him, knowing him to be capable of anything to avenge himself.

Mme. de Chastenay describes the salon of Talleyrand with much care. She often went to his house, though the society there was not literary.

"People arrived at 11 o'clock, if they had not dined there. At midnight a sort of supper was served; it was generally at that moment that the Prince of Benevento arrived. After the supper and some moments of conversation, whist was played, and those who did not play could retire. The ordinary whist-players, the old friends, the constant lady friends of Talleyrand, were commonly there. Mme. de Laval and the Duchess de Luynes, when she came to Paris, were among the old friends. The sister of Prince Poniatowski and the Duchess of Courland, who assumed the air of a sovereign, rejuvenated themselves, and were rival objects of devotion and admiration."

Champagny, Duke of Cadore, who became Minister of Foreign Affairs after Talleyrand left the Ministry, had also a salon, of which Mme. de Chastenay became a very assiduous frequenter. She saw the Empress Josephine at the Tuileries and at Malmaison, and has notes on her *soirées intimes*, on her ladies, on the members of the Bonaparte family whom she met there.

Fouché was very ardent in promoting the divorce of Napoleon from Josephine; he fell, however, soon afterwards into disgrace, without any apparent reason. He was replaced in the Ministry by Savary, Duke of Rovigo. "There was general apprehension, I must say. It is impossible to imagine to what a degree Fouché had convinced the public mind of his marvellous capacity, of his immense superiority, of his philosophy of mind, of his aversion to vexatious measures, of his predilections in favor of the higher classes, of his secret aversion to the old Jacobins, from whom he had everything to fear." It seemed to Mme. de Chastenay as if the Minister's reason was the necessary counterpoise of the despotism of the sovereign. Fouché's successor was in her opinion incapable, and had only "the blind devotion of a Mameluke." The precise reason of Fouché's disgrace is not yet known. Did the new Empress object to having relations with a former regicide? It seems certain that Napoleon found it difficult to make Marie Louise play cards at the same table with Cambacérès and the Duke of Otranto. Fouché was appointed Governor of the Roman States. "I am Pope," he said to Mme. de Chastenay. "All roads lead to Rome," said his friends. Before his departure Napoleon asked him to give him back all his letters; Fouché replied that he had burned them. Seals were put on his papers, but the letters were not found when the seals were broken. After a short stay in Rome, Fouché obtained permission to retire to Aix; he remained there, in his *sénatorerie*, for some time, almost forgotten.

Mme. de Chastenay was living quietly in the country, with her family, when she received an order to appear in Paris before the Prefect of Police. Some papers bearing her name had been found among Fouché's. She made the journey to Paris, first saw Réal, her friend and adviser, and afterwards Savary, who reassured her, and even asked her to come to Mme. de Rovigo's soirées. "Perhaps," she says, "if this page ever finds readers, people will be surprised at the fear which seized us; but exile, at that time, could be pronounced on a caprice, on a slight suspicion, and exile offered seldom any chance of return." On her return to Paris, Mme. de Chastenay paid visits to Mme. de Rovigo, who was of a good family. Savary, too, thought himself "born," and liked to say "nous autres," in speaking of people of quality. "I must repeat," says Mme. de Chastenay, "that in all such houses the old society was dominant and was generally immixed only with people holding high offices." It was at Mme. de Rovigo's that Mme. de Chastenay made the acquaintance of the Maréchale Lefebvre, whom Sardou has made famous under the name of *Mme. Sans-gêne*. It was this woman who said to her maid, "C'est moi qui se coiffe." When Napoleon made Marshal Lefebvre Duke of Dantzic, and when a deputation of the Senate went out of compliment to the Maréchale, the porter said to them, "You may go, you may go. Madame cares little for your *bêtises*. Madame is now looking after her hay."

The Emperor was then at the height of his glory. The kings, many of whom had been crowned by his hand, came in person to Paris to bask in the rays of his greatness. Fouché once said to Napoleon, "If I were you, my dynasty would soon be the oldest in Europe," and it really seemed as if the Emperor could dispose of all thrones.

"The King of Bavaria," says Mme. de Chastenay, "and the Queen of Bavaria, who, it was said, believed that she had some claim to the love of the unfortunate Duke d'Enghien, both came to Paris. The daughter of this King was the wife of Eugène; his niece was the Princess of Neuchâtel (Mme. Berthier). I remember that the new Princess of Hohenzollern was a niece of Murat and did not even bear her name. Mme. de Coislin asked the Princess Pia of Bavaria (born D'Arenberg) how she got on with this Princess of Hohenzollern, of such extraordinary creation. 'Very well, Aunt,' said the young woman; 'I assure you she is not proud at all.'"

Correspondence.

READERS FOR THE AMERICAN DIALECT SOCIETY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At a recent meeting of the American Dialect Society a committee was appointed to supervise the reading of American books, for the purpose of collecting all words and uses of words not yet recorded in the dictionaries. This is part of the larger work of the Society in gathering all dialectal material which represents spoken and written usage in America. Such material will be eventually incorporated, it is hoped, in a compendious American Dialect Dictionary, similar to the English Dialect Dictionary now in course of publication.

The reading of American books for this purpose has already begun, but the committee desires to secure more volunteers for this great and important undertaking. The books to be read include especially all dialect novels, as well as dialect stories and sketches in magazines or special volumes. Besides, American books of all sorts, particularly books of early date, may furnish valuable material. Any one who wishes to assist in the reading is invited to address the chairman of the committee, stating the book or books he wishes to undertake, or asking for assignment of reading. Such volunteers will receive a circular of directions, describing a simple and uniform plan of collecting and reporting dialect words.

The committee hopes to secure the coöperation of teachers of English or other languages in colleges and schools, of clergymen, and of people of leisure who are interested in observing peculiarities in language. The assistance of all such, as well as of any others who are willing to undertake the reading, is earnestly solicited.

To most readers of this circular the importance of such an enterprise need not be urged. The undertaking should appeal to all Americans, as contributing to settle the relations of English in Britain and America, and as showing the growth and development of the language upon American soil. Besides, the dictionary which will doubtless grow out of the work of the Dialect Society will be a reliable compendium of American usage, useful not only to this, but to coming generations.

The committee consists of Prof. Benj. I. Wheeler of Cornell University, Mr. E. H. Babbitt of Columbia, and the chairman, whose name appears below.—Very truly yours,

O. F. Emerson.

Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.

COCKAYNE'S LEXICON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: This library has just come into possession of a nearly complete copy of the 'English-Greek Lexicon' compiled by Thomas Cockayne and published in 1661. The 'Dictionary of National Biography,' *s. v.* Cockayne, Thomas, says "no copy [of this book] is in the British Museum," so that it may be supposed to be quite rare. I should like to learn whether any one in this country has a copy from which we might get a collation, with a view to ascertaining how nearly complete our copy is.—Very truly yours,

W. I. Fletcher.

Amherst College Library, March 10, 1897.

SLAVIC STUDIES IN AMERICA.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: As undoubtedly many readers of the *Nation* will turn with deep interest to Dr. Leo Wiener's report on "The Slavic Languages" in the current issue of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, I take the liberty of calling attention to an unfortunate oversight or misstatement in the closing paragraph. Dr. Wiener, after speaking of the services rendered to Slav studies by the French, Germans, and Swedes, says: "The English can speak with pride of Ralston; America has only Miss

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Isabel Hapgood as the representative of Slavic studies, though in a somewhat limited field." I do not wish in the slightest to detract from Miss Hapgood's credit, but surely there were prophets before Deborah! Not to mention the anonymous translator of Nekrásof's 'Moroz Krasnui-Nos' (Mr. J. Sumner Smith of New Haven), who edited the first Russian printed book on the Eastern coast; or Mr. Eugene Schuyler, who, if not the most accurate of scholars, still deserves credit as a pioneer; Mrs. Clara B. Martin, who was prevented only by her untimely death from disputing the field of translation even with Miss Hapgood, I think that among Harvard's own sons the name of the Hon. Jeremiah Curtin shines preëminent, not only as the translator of Russian and Polish classics—a long list, of which every Harvard man ought to be proud—but also as the author of valuable contributions to Slav folk-lore. So far as attainments in linguistics are concerned, Mr. Curtin is unparalleled in American scholarship: he goes among the American Indians and speedily speaks their languages like a native; he spends a few months among the peasants of Ireland, and rescues from forgetfulness hundreds of myths and legends that would in a few years have perished from remembrance; he left the secretaryship of the Russian legation to wander through the Slavic countries, and so caught the various tricks of speech that he could pass himself off as a muzhik; he knows Polish like a native; for him the complicated mosaic of Magyar unfolds its riddle.

The study of Russian is not so new to Americans as Dr. Wiener in his young enthusiasm would have us think: another Harvard graduate, Mr. B. Pickman Mann, son of Horace Mann, now connected with the Patent Office, has for thirty years been a consistent and able advocate of studies which he began under the inspiration of the late Count Osten-Sacken. Mr. Joseph Willard of Boston, a descendant of one of Harvard's early Presidents, has no small knowledge of Slavic languages and literature. Mr. George Kennan could never have accomplished his wonderful journeys without a good working knowledge not only of Russian, but also of various dialects. Mr. Charles Dana, editor of the *Sun*, having mastered a dozen other languages, has emulated the aged Cato and taken up the study of Russian; his translations from Pushkin are a genuine contribution to our knowledge of that great poet. I might mention others, but I will content myself with finally calling to mind the Hon. Joseph S. Ropes, a graduate of a Russian university, and always bound by ties of business and friendship with Russia. Mr. Ropes not only speaks Russian fluently, but has also collected a large number of works in Russian, most of which, on the failure of his eyesight, he presented to the library of the Andover Theological Seminary.

Of course Dr. Wiener, whose services and enthusiasm in the teaching of the Slavic languages and literature deserve the warmest commendation, would not intentionally have slighted his fellow-workers in America, any more than in mentioning Mr. W. R. S. Ralston as the representative of English scholarship he would deprive Morfill and others of their credit in this field. But his use of the word "only" in connection with Miss Hapgood's studies, it seems to me, deserves this correction, and I choose the *Nation* to disseminate it in order that those who read the unfortunate paragraph may not have to wait three months before they are set right. N. H. D.

Boston, Mass., March 6, 1897.

"FOR THE NONES" IN CHAUCER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A note in your issue of February 11, on "*For the Nonce*, Purposely, and the Like," has led me to look up the use of the phrase "for the nones" in Chaucer, with special reference to the meanings discussed by Mr. Fitzedward Hall. It is to be noticed that Prof. Skeat, who of course gives the now accepted etymology of the phrase, and comments freely on its use in the sense of "for the occasion," seems to recognize in Chaucer very slight variation from that meaning. As a matter of fact, Chaucer's most frequent use of the phrase seems to be in the vague expletive fashion which Mr. Hall calls "syllabic padding." Thus, we have, under the rendering 'for the occasion' in Skeat's Glossary, such lines as—

"The Miller was a stout carl, for the nones,"

where the idea of *occasion* is at best a vague one. The convenience of the rhyme with "bones" seems to have suggested the frequent use of the phrase in such descriptions as that of the Miller; it occurs again in the praise of the "braunes and bones" of the Monk, of Arcite, and (in the *Legend of Good Women*) of Aeneas. Of fifteen cases of "for the nones" cited by Skeat (I exclude for the moment four to be spoken of presently), there seem to me to be but five for which 'for the occasion' is wholly satisfying as a rendering. The others are of greater or less vagueness: 'once upon a time,' 'at the same time,' 'besides,' 'indeed,' are some of the renderings which would suggest themselves for a free paraphrase. Sometimes one would prefer to omit the phrase altogether—a liberty suggested by the fact that in the two cases occurring in the translation of the *Romance of the Rose* (lines 709, 1111) "for the nones" seems to represent nothing in the original.

The matter, however, which I wished especially to speak of is the use of this phrase with a suggestion of purpose, followed by "specification of what is purposed." It is under this head that Mr. Hall quotes the lines from the *Prologue* (379f.):

"A Cook they hadde with them for the nones,
To boille the chiknes with the mary-bones."

He omits the comma between the two verses, however, and implies that they should be more closely connected than has usually been done. The question which suggested itself to me was, whether there are other passages in Chaucer which would seem to justify this interpretation of 'for the nones' as the introduction of a clause of purpose. Two such passages may perhaps be found in *Troilus*. The first is in Book i., l. 561, at the conclusion of one of Pandarus's half-satirical exhortations to Troilus:

"These wordes seyde he for the nones alle,
That with swich thing he mighte him angry maken,"
etc.

In this case Skeat renders "for the nones" 'on the spur of the moment,' but gives no evidence in defence of the interpretation, which appears to be at variance with all common uses of the phrase. It would be much simpler—if we have sufficient justification—to render "for the nones" 'for the purpose,' the purpose being explained in the following line.

The other passage is very similar. It occurs in Book iv., l. 428:

"These wordes seyd he for the nones alle,
To help his freend, lest he for sorwe deyde."

Here the use of the infinitive in the second line is even more suggestive of the rendering suggested above for "for the nones." In both passages, it may be remarked, the use of the word "alle" is seemingly better suited to this interpretation than to the common one, 'for the occasion.' Since, however, the common meaning of the phrase may be adopted here with intelligible results, and since the use of "for the nones" in the sense of 'for the purpose' is at variance with Chaucer's habit, one may hesitate to lay much stress upon these considerations. The passages are at least interesting when compared with those quoted by Mr. Hall from Gawain Douglas, William Stewart, etc.

The absolute use of "for the nones" in the sense of 'purposely' is still more doubtful in Chaucer. I wish only to call attention to a passage that seems to savor of it. In the *Legend of Good Women* (Prologue), when the troop of fair ladies comes in sight of the daisy—

"Ful sodeinly they stinten alle at ones
And kneled doun, as it were for the nones,
And songen with o vois," etc.
(A-text 198; B text 295.)

Here Skeat renders "for the nones" 'for this special occasion,' which of course makes very fair sense. There is a suggestion, however, in the whole passage, of such a rendering as 'by premeditation,' 'by prearrangement,' 'as though by general consent.' The connection is close enough with both 'for the purpose' and (especially) '*purposely*,' to be suggestive of the elastic character of the phrase, and to indicate how shadowy are the border-lines between the various uses.

In conclusion, Mr. Leo Wiener has called my attention to a couple of cases of "for the nones," interesting in this connection, in Palsgrave's *Lesclarcissement de la Langue Francoyse* (1530). In his English-French list of adverbs Palsgrave inserted the phrase twice, once with an added *t*. Under the adverbs answering the question *Pour quoy?* "for the nones" is rendered "a propos; a escient;" and under those answering the question *Comment?* "for the nonest" is rendered "de mesmes," with the example: "Cest ung gallant *de mesmes*" (pp. 865, 835). The first of these cases seems to be like the use of the phrase in the sense of 'purposely, knowingly.' The second is not so easy to be sure of; perhaps one might classify it with the merely intensive or expletive uses.

Raymond Macdonald Alden.

Harvard University, March 10, 1897.

Notes.

Edward Arnold's spring announcements include 'Wild Norway,' by Abel Chapman; 'On Veldt and Farm,' by Frances McNab; 'Soldiering and Surveying in British East Africa,' by Major Macdonald; 'The Sportsman in Ireland,' a reproduction in "The Sportsman's Library"; 'Memories of the Months,' by Sir Herbert Maxwell, Bart.; 'Old English Glasses,' *i. e.*, drinking-vessels, by Albert Hartshorne; 'Treatment of Nature in Dante's Divina Commedia,' by Prof. Oscar Kuhns of Wesleyan University; and 'The Chances of Death, and Other Essays,' by Prof. Karl Pearson.

The New Amsterdam Book Co. will issue during the present month 'Death—and Afterwards,' by Sir Edwin Arnold; 'The Diary of a Resurrectionist, 1811-'12,' by James Blake Bailey; 'Premature Burial, and How It May Be Prevented,' by William Tebb and Col. E. P. Vollum, U. S. A.; 'On the Nile with a Camera,' by Anthony Wilkin, profuse-

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ly illustrated; and 'The Devil-Tree of El Dorado,' a novel by Frank Aubrey.

H. S. Stone & Co. have in press 'The Fourth Napoleon,' by Charles Benham.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will shortly publish the last part of 'English and Scottish Popular Ballads,' by the late Prof. Francis J. Child, with a biographical sketch by Prof. George L. Kittredge; 'Memories of Hawthorne,' by Rose Hawthorne Lathrop; 'John Hopkins Morison: A Memoir, by his Children'; 'Reminiscences and Letters of Caroline C. Briggs,' edited by George S. Merriam; the second series of Victor Hugo's Letters, edited by Paul Meurice; 'France under Louis XV.,' by James Breck Perkins; 'The Story of the Pilgrim Fathers, 1602-1624, as told by Themselves, their Friends and their Enemies,' edited from the original sources by Edward Arber; 'The Ruins and Excavations of Ancient Rome,' by Rodolpho Lanciani; 'A Dictionary of American Authors,' by Oscar Fay Adams; 'The Liquor Problem in its Legislative Aspect,' by Frederic H. Wines and John Koren; and 'Nature's Diary,' selections for the round year from Thoreau, Burroughs, and others.

'Nature in a City Yard,' by Charles M. Skinner; 'Talks to Young Men,' and 'Talks to Young Women,' by the Rev. Charles H. Parkhurst; and 'For the Country,' patriotic poems in war-time and in peace, by Richard Watson Gilder, will be published next month by the Century Co.

The Baker & Taylor Co. have in preparation 'The Romance of a Jesuit Mission,' an historical novel by M. Bourchier Sanford.

William Doxey, San Francisco, announces inedited 'Letters of Canova and Madame Récamier,' translated by J. W. Laing, M.A., Oxon., with an introduction by Prof. W. H. Hudson of Stanford University, and illustrations of Canova's sculptures mentioned in the correspondence.

A College Latin Series, under the general editorship of Charles E. Bennett of Cornell University and John C. Rolfe of the University of Michigan, has been undertaken by Allyn & Bacon, Boston.

We do not find Prof. Jesse Macy's 'The English Constitution' (Macmillan) altogether satisfactory. The first nine chapters aim to give such an account of the practical workings of government in England as will help American readers to a better understanding of Bryce's 'American Commonwealth'; but, while this purpose is in some degree accomplished, the information given is of a very general character, and many topics on which a thoughtful reader would wish for light are omitted altogether. Were such a thing permissible, a better and much more useful account could be made by merely weaving together the numerous and lucid explanations of English administrative usage which Mr. Bryce himself gives. The remainder of the volume, dealing with the constitutional history of England, is mainly a restatement of the opinions and conclusions of secondary authorities, and, while readable and not uninforming, contains nothing either new or distinctive. We take it that the volume is designed as a text-book for students who already know something of English history; we are inclined to think, however, that the average college student, save with most skilful guidance, would be likely to gain from it that most fatal of all knowledge—a general idea of things, unsupported by firm grasp of specific facts. We note slight misprints: the name of Mr. James Gairdner, editor of the Paston letters, appears as *Gardner* (p. 193), and that of J. R. Green, the historian, as *Greene* (pp. 193, 254). We are glad to commend the attractive style in which the volume is issued, and the admirable index. The few documents given in the appendix cannot be rendered too accessible.

In her 'Colonial Days in Old New York' (Scribners), Mrs. Alice Morse Earle very patiently reconstructs, for the Society of Colonial Dames and such others as are interested in the subject, the life of their Dutch ancestors here, and gives us a quantity of detail, some of it not new, on how their houses were furnished; what they ate and drank; how they were educated, married, and buried; how they cleaned their city streets and punished their malefactors. As a book of reference it may be more authentic than Mr. Knickerbocker's History, of which, however, it lacks the pictorial quality by reason of its very minuteness.

Capt. John Codman has just published (Bonnell, Silver & Co.) a little book called 'An American Transport in the Crimean War,' which becomes timely upon the revival of the Eastern question. The author's cousin, Mr. John Codman Ropes, writes a preface for him, in which he very justly commends the book for its sprightly narrative and humorous anecdote, rather than for its value as a contribution to the history of what he considers "the last of the picturesque wars of the world." The Turks gave Capt. Codman a thoroughly good time while he was among them, and he remembers them so pleasantly that he does not share in the prevailing cry for their ejection from Europe.

Prof. William Henry Hudson of Leland Stanford Junior University modestly offers us three essays, on Keats, Clough, and Matthew Arnold, originally prepared for lectures, under the title of 'Studies in Interpretation,' in which the contrast between the different characters of the three poets, as well as a certain affinity of each to the other in his attitude to the world and to the spiritual life, are exceedingly well thought out. The essay on Keats is the most notable of them, particularly so for its account of the influence of the French Revolution upon contemporary English literature, first as a stimulus to an ardent radicalism, and next, in the same persons, to a conservatism equally intense. The author's comparative study of the attitude of Coleridge, Wordsworth, and Byron, during this period, which profoundly affected their work, is no less interesting than the picture of Keats as a Hellene, a poet of beauty, not morals, to whom the reality of life was all ugly. The essay on Clough is well worth while, as his fine works are too little read; but while the critical analysis of his view of life is correct, it is a pity that the best of his verse has to go unquoted. An obvious misprint ("godliness" for "godlessness") on page 16 spoils the sense of a sentence.

The first volume of an Italian translation of the writings of the Senator and art critic, Giovanni Morelli, has been published by the Fratelli Treves (Milan). It will probably be followed by two others, completing the work. It contains notes and a biography of Morelli by Dr. Gustavo Frizzoni, Morelli's friend and pupil, and it is abundantly illustrated with process engravings, chiefly of pictures that are comparatively little known, or infrequently copied. These add much to the value of the work, and give the Italian a decided superiority over either the German or the English editions.

G. Hedeler, Leipzig (18 Nürnbergstrasse), sends us the first volume in his world series of Lists of Private Libraries. It deals with the United States and Canada. It is arranged alphabetically by persons, each of whom is given a number, and embraces 601 without exhausting the field. The descriptions range in length from one line to twenty-five, and exhibit varying degrees of explicitness, from the non-informing "good miscellaneous collection" to full-bodied *réclame*. The total number of volumes is only exceptionally mentioned. The largest we have noticed is 28,000. Many omissions are observable. We will instance Prof. Goldwin Smith's library in Toronto, Mr. Daniel Parish, jr.'s, anti-slavery collection in this city, and Mr. W. H. Whitmore's genealogical library in Boston. The two last would have furnished new titles or sub-titles for Mr. Hedeler's index of specialties, which, by the way, is very blind for reference by reason of faulty punctuation. There is also an index by States and towns. The descriptions are in English, German, and French, in parallel columns. Additions to this list will be made in connection with Volume ii., Great Britain. We notice the misprint of "Marquard" for Marquand.

The well-known Semitic scholar and Assistant Librarian of the Bodleian, Dr. Adolf Neubauer, has just edited, in collaboration with Mr. A. E. Cowley of Wadham College, Oxford, a Hebrew text of portions of Ecclesiastes, his recent discovery of which, among a mass of Hebrew and Arabic fragments acquired through Prof. Sayce, has excited much attention. The Bodleian fragments consist of nine consecutive leaves, eighteen pages of Hebrew MS., which (oddly enough) form the continuation of the single leaf, two pages of MS., brought to Cambridge by Mrs. S. S. Lewis, and lately translated in the *Expositor* for July, 1896, by Mr. S. Schechter, Reader in Talmudic at Cambridge. Dr. Neubauer has published the Cambridge and the Bodleian fragments continuously, covering Ecclesiastes xxxix. 15 to xlix. 11, with collotype facsimiles of the first and last pages. A complete set of collotypes covering facsimiles of all the pages may be had by sending six shillings and sixpence to the Controller of the Clarendon Press at Oxford. The importance of this critical publication by Dr. Neubauer (issued by the Clarendon Press at half a guinea) in its bearing on questions of Biblical criticism can hardly be overestimated. Hitherto the original Hebrew text of Ecclesiastes has been regarded as hopelessly lost, and the fortunate discovery of this large portion of it will consequently excite all the more interest. Dr. Neubauer's careful edition of the Hebrew is accompanied by a literal English translation, and by the Greek, Syriac, and Latin versions, and preceded by an introduction containing all that is known of the history of the book and of its author.

The steady progress of the admirable 'Dictionnaire de la Langue Française du commencement du 18e siècle jusqu' à nos jours' (Paris: Ch. Delagrave) is good to behold. The 20th fascicule of this compact and authoritative work of MM. Hatzfeld, Darmesteter, and Thomas carries the vocabulary on to *négrillon*.

The present month witnesses the founding of a *Zeitschrift für Bücherfreunde* (Bielefeld: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), to be edited by F. von Zobeltitz, a novelist of repute.

The March number of the *International Studio* (New York: John Lane) has among its more notable articles one on "Pencil Drawing

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at Bushy [under Prof. Herkomer]," with many justificatory illustrations, and another on "Early Scandinavian Wood-Carvings." There is a four-page supplement, as promised, of "American Studio-Talk."

The *American Architect and Building News* Co., Boston, will supply to American subscribers the new monthly *Art et Décoration*, which has the support of such well-known artists as Puvis de Chavannes, Frémiet, J. P. Laurens, Cazin, Grasset, Merson, etc. The initial (January) number strikes a high note in its illustrations. It opens with a paper on Glass (*Vitrail*), which is followed by one, offering no little interest, on Victor Horta, "an innovator" in domestic architecture. Mr. Horta is a Belgian, and the plans, façades, and interiors of his several designs can here be studied with profit. To be remarked are his electric chandeliers unconventionally disposed at the corners of mantels or on the newel of the hall stairway.

The first number of *Municipal Affairs*, to be issued quarterly by the Reform Club of this city at No. 52 William Street, is a stout pamphlet containing, as is fit, a Bibliography of Municipal Administration and City Conditions, arranged by subject and author. Some 6,000 items are thus brought together, and not from English sources only. The aim of the compiler, Mr. Robert C. Brooks, has been to comprehend not merely the United States and Great Britain, but also France, Germany, Austria, Italy, and Spain. A list of the periodicals referred to, and a list of the principal topics of the subject-index, introduce this highly laudable work, of which the price is fifty cents.

There are, we opine, few subscribers to the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* who do not read it backwards for the class news, and who do not feel that they have got their money's worth before the general papers at the front are reached. Pursuing this progression, they will learn, from the March number, of the unrestricted gift of the late George Ticknor's Dante collection to the College Library, by his family; will scan for the first time, we think, a list of "recent musical compositions by Harvard men," mustering seven composers, some eminent; and will note the reorganization of the College Printing-Office, which is now directly controlled by the Publication Agent. They may next read and weigh the plea of Messrs. Bartlett, Francke, and Schilling in favor of establishing a Germanic Museum at Harvard; and wind up with Mr. Moorfield Storey's picture of "Harvard in the Sixties," which points out in a salutary way some of the virtues of the old régime of uniform required instruction. The orator (for this paper formed part of a Sanders Theatre address) also conveyed an idea of the war-time elevation of sentiment at Harvard as in the North at large, but, mindful of the Jingo address from the same rostrum in 1895, closed with an admirable disclaimer of any sympathy with the pretence "that war is in itself desirable or ennobling."

White Mountain tourists in the coming season should bear in mind the map of Mount Washington and vicinity published by the United States Geological Survey, and now reprinted for the New Hampshire Forestry Commission. It is a contour delineation on a scale (practically) of an inch to a mile, colored for the wooded areas. Its scope is from North Conway on the south to Berlin on the north, with Jefferson and Fabyan's for the western limit. With a number of other, smaller and pocket, maps, it accompanies the second annual report of the Forestry Commission, in which we notice the appendix containing a list of trees possessing commercial value that compose the State forests; the White Mountain bibliography; sundry addresses; and statistical tables relating to the local lumber industry.

Prof. A. Baltzer of Bern is the author of the thirtieth volume of the reports on the Geological Map of Switzerland, describing the Diluvial Glacier of the Aar, and its deposits in the neighborhood of Bern. The volume is handsomely prepared; its illustrations are particularly good, one of them being an exceptionally fine reproduction of a photograph, by Sella, showing the confluence of the two main branches of the glacier, far up among the mountains. A long pictorial section exhibits the dimensions of the diluvial glacier when it extended down the valley and overflowed the piedmont plain. The text is chiefly devoted to a detailed account of glacial action in the neighborhood of the outermost terminal moraines and the included amphitheatre of Belp, just above Bern. A special map of this district in two large sheets will prove of much value to the student who wishes quickly to review on the ground the results reached by the Swiss specialists. Regarding the vexed question of glacial erosion, Baltzer says: This problem was in earlier days treated too theoretically, but in later years extreme views have been abandoned in the light of detailed investigations, "indem beide Parteien Wasser in ihren Wein gossen."

Mr. Samuel T. Pickard, the biographer of Whittier, writes to the Boston *Transcript* March 5, protesting that the story which was quoted in our review of Mrs. Fields's 'Authors and Friends' about the burning of a waxen image by Whittier's mother cannot possibly be true. He thinks she may have seen it done, and described it so vividly that Whittier fancied he remembered her doing it herself. Mr. Pickard's argument is ingenious, but not quite convincing. It is not as if the wax-image superstition were merely a survival of Salem witchcraft. But Whittier's mother is entitled to the benefit of a doubt.

Science has not lost its hold on the solid acquisition of the Roentgen rays, albeit public interest in them has waned. We read in the Milan *Perseveranza* of February 14 that silk-culturists are now beginning to use the rays for detecting the female cocoons (whose ova are made discernible), and hence of selecting in due proportion the male cocoons, which produce a much greater quantity of silk. On the other hand, where silk has been overweighted (or charged) in dyeing, the rays detect this also and the extent of it.

An interesting side of the work of the English in Egypt is shown in the report by Mr. J. Scott on the progress of the native tribunals for the past two years. The main facts emphasized are that, through the careful supervision of the different courts, justice is to a great extent impartially administered to all alike and without unnecessary delay. To assure the permanence of this desirable reform, so far as possible, all new magistrates are chosen from the successful graduates of the Khedivial School of Law, now numbering more than one hundred students. A Boys' Reformatory has been established at Alexandria, in which the inmates are taught (besides reading and writing) gardening, carpentering, and other trades.

Exceptional opportunities for training in physiology are held out by the department of physiology in the Harvard Medical School, Boston, which offers positions for four qualified men without charge. The circular cannot readily be epitomized, but may be had of Prof. Henry P. Bowditch at the School. Applicants must possess an elementary knowledge of physiology, and a sufficient training in one or more of the biological sciences. The chosen candidates "will give the mornings of the collegiate year to research, and the afternoons to the direction of undergraduate students in experimental physiology, under the supervision of a professor in the department."

—The English Dialect Society is no more. Like those insects which perish in giving birth to their offspring, it has accumulated in print the material for the great Dialect Dictionary now in progress, and winds up its affairs by making the Dictionary its legatee. It expires with a final output of four volumes (London: Henry Frowde; New York: Macmillan), carrying the total up to 80. One, the thinnest, is a 'Bibliographical List of Works Illustrative of the Dialect of Northumberland,' by R. Oliver Heslop. Another is 'Two Collections of Derbicisms, by Samuel Pegge, A.M.,' laboriously edited from MSS. of the last century by Thomas Hallam and Prof. Skeat, who here signally exemplifies his disinterestedness in the field of the Society of which he has been the President and mainstay. Pegge's biography, by his son, offers some amusing reading, and we have marked some of the proverbs at the close of the glossary: "As lazy as Ludlam's dog, who laid himself down to bark"; "Do nothing rashly but kill fleas"; "They are pulling geese in Scotland; so here it snows." No. 79 is 'A Warwickshire Word-book,' by G. F. Northall, with not a few Shakspere citations, naturally. No. 77 is a glossary for the Lakes region, or "Lakeland," with a special view to comparing the dialect of Cumberland, Westmoreland, and North Lancashire with Icelandic. The compiler, Rev. T. Ellwood, has had the competent assistance of Mr. Magnússon, and makes out a very good case in favor of a Norse settlement. The evidence is most striking in the case of place-names—Rotha, Bratha, Greta, Wisa, where the final *a* is Icelandic for "river," all these being streams; Kirkby, etc., in which -by represents the Scandinavian word for village; Dub, "pool"; Wath, "ford"; Grund, "farm" (Holm Grund, etc.), with others equally or more striking. The -thwaites (Applethwaite, etc.) of Lakeland can all be matched in Norway. These precious volumes will not lose their worth by reason of the synthetical Dictionary. They will be resorted to for an intensive view of the several localities recorded dialectically, and, according as they are more or less discursive and literary, will always furnish a delightful browsing-ground for the student of manners as well as of language.

—Mr. Henry Gannett, in his Slater Fund pamphlet on the "Statistics of the Negroes in the United States," says that the negroes 'are moving southward from the border States into those of the South Atlantic and the Gulf." The late Gen. Walker and Mr. Robert P. Porter, Superintendents of the tenth and the eleventh Census respectively, and Mr. Bryce in his 'American Commonwealth,' have made similar statements. The increase of the colored population of the border States has been small, whether considered absolutely or relatively. In the States of the far South, on the other hand, the last census showed that in 1890 there were in round numbers seven hundred thousand more negroes than there were ten years before—a gain of over 18 per cent. dur-

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ing the decade. The simplest and seemingly the sufficient explanation of this marked difference in the amount and rate of increase was the one given by Mr. Gannett. No one, therefore, apparently thought it worth while to analyze the tables to be found in the publications of the tenth and eleventh censuses showing the place of birth by States and Territories of the negro inhabitants of each State and Territory. Obviously, if the Maryland negroes, for example, were emigrating southward in numbers large enough to offset the deaths among the natives of that State who had gone in the same direction at an earlier period, there would have been in 1890 among the negroes residing in the South Atlantic and Gulf States more persons born in Maryland than there were in 1880. Mr. Frederick J. Brown, in his fifty-page pamphlet upon "The Northward Movement of the Colored Population," recently published by Cushing & Co. of Baltimore, has given the result of a careful study of these tables. He proves to demonstration that there has been no appreciable southward movement of the negro population from any of the border States, even if we include in this description every State north of the latitude of Southern Tennessee. To this rule North Carolina constitutes the sole exception. From the last-named State there went forth during the decade two streams of negro emigrants. One, containing between one-third and one fourth of the whole number, moved northward; the other, and much the larger, flowed southward and westward. Mr. Brown shows that the increase of the negro population of the border States, which would naturally be much smaller than in the States to the southward, has been still further diminished by an emigration during the decade of about seventy-five thousand from the border States to the North, the negro population of which, between 1880 and 1890, made a gain of over 20 per cent. So far, therefore, from the negro moving, as Mr. Bryce supposes that he does, from the "colder, higher, and drier lands" to "regions more resembling his ancient seat in the Old World," precisely the reverse occurs. Indeed, Mr. Brown shows that even from the Far South there was an appreciable, albeit a feeble, movement to the old Free States, resulting in a net addition during the decade of some 6,000 souls to the negro population of the latter.

—As collateral to the principal theme of his pamphlet, Mr. Brown has studied with great thoroughness and patience the location and movement of the colored population of all the old slave States. He shows that there are, scattered through all these States, counties in which there are on the average nearly one hundred whites to every negro. In these sections the small negro population is on the whole decreasing. There are other regions in which the negroes are five times as numerous as the whites. In these sections, as a rule, to which, however, there are notable exceptions, the negro preponderance is becoming greater. Outside of these two classes of counties, in which the disproportion between the whites and negroes is extreme, there lies the greater portion of the entire area of the Southern States. Mr. Brown detects throughout this area, which may be called the average South, a general tendency towards a more equal diffusion of the colored population. In other words, the black belts of the South are becoming less extensive, but some portions of them, of a comparatively limited area, are becoming still "blacker" than they used to be.

—The *Boletin* of the Geographical Society of Lima, Peru, corresponding to the third trimester of Vol. VI., brings interesting news. In the annual address of the President, Dr. Luis Carranza, it transpires that, despite the financial disturbances in Peru due to the last revolution, funds have been found for continuing the publication of the great map of that country, the material for which was collected by Antonio Raimondi. This enterprise had temporarily ceased with the sixteenth sheet. The 17th, 18th, 19th, 20th, 22d, and 24th are now ready for delivery, and Nos. 21, 23, 25, 26, and 27 have been sent to the lithographer, Erhard of Paris, while Nos. 28 and 29 are drawn, and the able cartographer Baluarte is drawing Nos. 30, 31, and 32, with which the map will be complete. A new edition of this map on a smaller scale is also promised. The prospects for an early completion of Raimondi's *magnum opus*, 'El Perú,' are not encouraging, and President Carranza announces the purpose of the Society to continue the publication of his notes in the *Boletin*. We have in this number the fifth instalment of Raimondi's Itinerary ("De Lima á Morococha"), to be followed in due course by his notes on meteorology, geology, and natural history. Although these are by no means as full and satisfactory as would be the properly edited work, they will prove of such value that scholars who are interested in Peru can ill afford to be without them. Among other interesting papers in this issue is one by Capt. Melitón Carvajal on the latitude of Lima, fixing the position of the southern tower of the cathedral on the parallel 12°, 2′, 58″ S.; Humboldt's determination, 12°, 2′, 45″ S., made in 1802, being one of the closest to this latest result. Dr. Claudio Osambela gives the historical basis of Peru's claim of the Rio Madeira as its eastern frontier, and Dr. Leonardo Villar continues his scholarly and highly interesting discussions of the linguistic affinities of the Keshua with the languages of Polynesia and Asia, which he insists are feeble in the extreme, basing his argument upon word-structure, inflection, and other grammatical relations, as opposed to mere lexical resemblances.

—The minds of the Greeks are thoroughly occupied at present with the Cretan question, but, in the midst of the political turmoils, recent Athenian newspapers bring the news of three interesting archæological discoveries. In his excavations on the northern slope of the Athenian Acropolis, Kabbadias, Ephor-General of Antiquities, found other caves besides those formerly known and assigned to Apollo and to Pan, and determined that which has been called the cave of Pan to be the grotto of Apollo *akraios*. Ten votive inscriptions were there discovered, on small marble tablets which had stood in niches in the rock. These inscriptions are surrounded each by a wreath, which Kabbadias believes to represent myrtle, and each bears the names not only of the chief archon of the city, but also of the archon basileus and the thesmothetæ. The place where the altar of Apollo stood is clearly marked. This grotto is of special literary interest, since it was the birthplace of Ion, according to Euripides's play of that name. The same excavations of Kabbadias brought to light steps cut in the rock which lead to the stairs that were laid bare in the excavations of 1886. Up these steps the Persians may have climbed in their invasion of Greece under Xerxes in 480 B.C.

—At Ambeláki, on the island of Salamis, fragments have been found of an ancient inscription in the Corinthian alphabet. This proves to be the first two verses of the epitaph composed by the poet Simonides of Ceos for the Corinthians who perished in the battle of Salamis: "Once we dwelt in the well-watered city of Corinth, but now Salamis, the island of Ajax, holds us." The dialect is the strict Dorian, doubtless by the choice of the Corinthians, while the literary tradition of Dio Chrysostom and Plutarch gives the epigram of the Ionic poet in an Ionic form. Doubtless the spot where the inscription was found was the burial-place of the Corinthians. Possibly the graves of the others who fought at Salamis lie near. The third discovery was made by the Germans in their excavations near the Areopagus in Athens—a potsherd on which had been scratched in ancient characters the name of Themistocles. This was used, we may believe, either when this statesman was ostracised, about 471 B. C., or a dozen years earlier, when he succeeded in securing the ostracism of his rival, Aristides the Just. Three similar *ostraka* were previously known, one bearing the name of Megacles, uncle of Pericles, and two bearing the name of Xanthippus, the father of Pericles. Two of these were found on the Acropolis, and the other near the Ceramicus. The excavation of the theatre at Delphi by the French has been completed. This is connected with the sacred precinct (peribolos) of Apollo's temple, and is said to be well preserved. It has seven sections (*kerkides*) of seats, with thirty-three rows in each section. The theatre at Athens, scholars will remember, has thirteen sections; that at Epidaurus has fifty-two rows.

—An electrical exhibition will be held in 1899 at Como to celebrate the centenary of the invention of the Voltaic pile—Volta being a son whom Como delights to honor. It happens that Turin is going to have a similar show in 1898, but Como counts upon the prestige of Volta's name, as well as upon such relics of him as it may be possible to gather together, to counterbalance the prejudice resulting from this fact. The exhibition will not be confined to electricity alone, but will include fabrics of silk, Como's greatest actual industry. It will be interesting to see just what she does produce in this line. At present her manufacturers make a secret of it, preferring to sell their fine goods as French, for the sake of the assured market they will command. It seems that they think the time has come for following a different course. At any rate, an open competition with the looms of Lyons ought to serve Italian industry better than this underhand method. It is to the credit of the Comaschi that they follow the example of the Milanese in their last exhibition, and have determined to raise the money wanted among themselves, without asking aid from the Government. They are also about to begin a number of improvements and embellishments of their port, hoping to bring them to an end before 1899. These are, however, on a scale so vast that it may be feared that they will demand for their execution a much longer time. They include a change in the entire waterfront of Como.

RECENT POETRY.

We have more than once called attention to the fact that the Canadian provinces, after a long period of comparative literary barrenness, are now producing a younger group of poets who are forcing our rhymers in the

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United States to look to their laurels. These Northern recruits show, it is true, a tendency to cross the line and to migrate hither; but their works precede them and prepare a welcome. Prof. C. G. D. Roberts's new volume, 'The Book of the Native' (Lamson, Wolffe & Co.), goes far to vindicate the claims we have heretofore made for this author. There is in him a sense of artistic finish—"the perfection and precision of the instantaneous line," in Ruskin's phrase—without which genius leaves its work still undone. Note, for instance, the concentrated passion and power of this little blank-verse poem of only twenty-one lines (p. 65), and the cadence and commanding rhythm in the structure of the verse:

BESIDE THE WINTER SEA.

As one who sleeps, and hears across his dream
The cry of battles ended long ago,
Inland I hear the calling of the sea.
I hear its hollow voices, though between
My wind-worn dwelling and thy wave-worn strand
How many miles, how many mountains are!
And thou beside the winter sea alone
Art walking with thy cloak about thy face.
Bleak, bleak the tide, and evening coming on;
And gray the pale, pale light that wans thy face.
Solemnly breaks the long wave at thy feet;
And sullenly in patches clings the snow
Upon the low, red rocks worn round with years.
I see thine eyes, I see their grave desire,
Unsatisfied and lonely as the sea's;—
Yet how unlike the wintry sea's despair!
For could my feet but follow thine, my hands
But reach for thy warm hands beneath thy cloak,
What summer joy would lighten in thy face,
What sunshine warm-thine eyes, and thy sad mouth
Break to a dewy rose, and laugh on mine.

The only criticism we should make on this is the repetition of the terminal words "thy face," and this is a fault so obvious that we must believe it to be founded on some justification in the author's mind which makes it a virtue. Another poem, in more lyric vein, is this (p. 90):

THE LONE WHARF.

The long tides sweep
Around its sleep,
The long red tides of Tantramar.
Around its dream
They hiss and stream,
Sad for the ships that have sailed afar.

How many lips
Have lost their bloom,
How many ships
Gone down to gloom,
Since keel and sail
Have fled out from me
Over the thunder and strain of the sea!

Its kale-dark sides
Throb in the tides;
The long winds over it spin and hum;
Its timbers ache
For memory's sake,
And the throngs that never again will come.

How many lips
Have lost their bloom,
How many ships
Gone down to gloom,
Since keel and sail
Have fled out from me
Over the thunder and strain of the sea!

It is to be noticed, as has already been proved by Mr. Carman, that these Canadian poets have a fine repertory of local names, some of them sonorous enough for Milton, and partly the bequest of the old French explorers—Blomidon, Grand Pré, The Basin of Minas, and Tantramar. But Prof. Roberts is strong even away from the land of which he is a native, as in the fine closing ballad of "The Laughing Sally," a sea-strain which has the vigor now so much praised in Kipling, and without Kipling's tendency to an over-robust heaviness of hand.

It is possible that the many admirers of Mr. Aldrich may feel that his 'Judith and Holofernes' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is hardly a satisfactory climax in his literary career. It is not merely handicapped, one hardly knows why, by its Scriptural name and subject; but it is also limited by the fact that blank verse, the most difficult of all measures, is not one which Mr. Aldrich has ever quite made his own. The dramatic development of the work is strong and fine, as becomes the author of 'Mercedes,' but the melody often halts; and only the varied cadence of Milton or Keats or Tennyson can relieve a long blank-verse poem from fatiguing the ear. It is not merely that there occur such tame lines as

"Fairer than morning in Arabia";

or,

"In no one day had he so drank [*sic*] of wine";

or,

"Nigh unto Dothaim they buried her";

but one has only to read aloud any dozen continuous lines to be made aware of a certain monotony in the work. For an inferior author this would be less important—we might even say that the poem gave great promise; but the perfect beauty of many of Mr. Aldrich's shorter poems has established for him a standard by which he must inevitably be tried. He reaches perhaps his highest point of mere execution in the following passage (p. 75):

As in some breathless wilderness at night
A leopard, pinioned by a falling tree
That takes him unaware curled up in sleep,
Shrieks, and the ghostly echo in her cave
Mimics the cry in every awful key
And sends it flying through her solitudes:
So shrieked Bagoas, so his cry was caught
And voiced from camp to camp, from peak to peak.
Then a great silence fell upon the camps,
And all the people stood like blocks of stone
In a deserted quarry: then a voice,
Blown through a trumpet, clamored: He is dead!
The Prince is dead! The Hebrew witch hath slain
Prince Holofernes! Fly, Assyrians, fly!

Upon the sounding of that baleful voice
A panic seized the silent multitude.
In white dismay from their strong mountain-hold
They broke, and fled. As when the high snows melt,
And down the steep hill-flanks in torrents flow,
Not in one flood, but in a hundred streams:
So to the four winds spread the Asshur hosts,
Leaving their camels tethered at the stake,
Their brave tents standing, and their scattered arms

The curious little volume which certainly presents its worst side in its title, 'Seen and Unseen, or Monologues of a Homeless Snail,' by Yone Noguchi (San Francisco: Burgess), has been received more coldly than one would have supposed by the Whitman Brotherhood, since it is really a reasonable logical deduction from their own cult. If a robust formlessness makes greatness in Whitman, why should not a more fragile and attenuated formlessness prove attractive in the 'Homeless Snail'? The two products differ only as America differs from Japan, and the big or burly from the delicate and slender. The face of the young author is boyish and appealing; and that at which he aims is not wholly beyond his reach, for he defines it as "The Mighty Nothing in No More." Since that hero in Bailey's 'Festus,' whose achievement was to fall "into himself" and to be "missing ever after," there has been no such complete self-surrender; and there are sometimes graceful glimpses of pure and delicate fancies by the way, and a fastidious purity of thought which must to those reared on Whitman appear a little fantastic and indicative of debility. The following stanza, if such it be, sums up as well as any the whole attitude of Yone Noguchi (p. 32):

THE SEAS OF LONELINESS.

Underneath the void-colored shade of the trees, my "self" passed as a drowsy cloud into Somewhere.
I see my soul floating upon the face of the deep, nay, the faceless face of the deepless deep—
Ah, the Seas of Loneliness!
The mute-waving, silence waters, ever shoreless, bottomless, heavenless, colorless, have no shadow of my passing soul.
Alas, I, without wisdom, without foolishness, without goodness, without badness, am like god, a negative god, at least!
Is that a quail? One voice out of the back hill jumped into the ocean of loneliness.
Alas, what sound resounds; what color returns; the bottom, the heaven, too, reappears!
There is no place of muteness! Yea, my paradise is lost in this moment!
I want not pleasure, sadness, love, hatred, success, unsuccess, beauty, ugliness—only the mighty Nothing in No More.

It is often to be noticed that the poetry of a painter is apt to be rich and incongruous, exhibiting odd schemes of color and confused strokes which seem far worse in words than on canvas. This is eminently true of Mr. Lawrence Housman's 'Green Arras' (John Lane), a volume of poems illustrated by himself, the same wealth and exuberance being visible in pictures and verses, but even more in the latter. So careless is the execution that a number of mere grammatical errors have to be corrected in an extra leaf. Most of the poems show power; some, as "The House of Birth," exhibit depth of thought and feeling; but the following is the sweetest and calmest among them all (p 78):

HOMEWARD BOUND.

Face of delight, recall of love,
Sea-frontage of the pleasant isles,
The sunlight strikes our sails above,
And night draws in the leeward miles.

We bring you visions of the south,
Sea-dreams of many a bathing star,
From many a moon-white river's mouth,
We travellers waveworn from afar.

With overhead the light grown grand,
On sails that clutch the homeward breeze:
And lo! the dipping of the land,
And heart's-ease of the harbored seas.

John Davidson, author of 'New Ballads" (John Lane), is a type of those younger English poets who vibrate between primrose paths or soft serenades to Miranda and the grim realities of English lowly life—things which become grimmer still in their somewhat crude utterance. Such honest rudeness of sympathy, apparent in this author's previous works, is more marked than ever here; it shows itself in his very titles, as "A Song of the Road," "A Northern Suburb," "A Ballad of a Workman," and is written out plainly in such strains as this (p. 96):

PIPER, PLAY!

Now the furnaces are out,
And the aching anvils sleep;
Down the road the grimy rout
Tramples homeward twenty deep.
Piper, play! Piper, play!
Though we be o'erlabored men,
Ripe for rest, pipe your best!
Let us foot it once again!

Bridled looms delay their din;
All the humming wheels are spent;
Busy spindles cease to spin.
Warp and woof must rest content.
Piper, play! Piper, play!
For a little we are free.
Foot it, girls, and shake your curls,
Haggard creatures though we be!

Racked and soiled the faded air
Freshens in our holiday;
Clouds and tides our respite share;
Breezes linger by the way.
Piper, rest! Piper, rest!
Now, a carol of the moon!
Piper, piper, play your best!
Melt the sun into your tune!

We are of the humblest grade:
Yet we dare to dance our fill!
Male and female were we made,—
Fathers, mothers, lovers still.
Piper softly; soft and low;
Pipe of love in mellow notes,
Till the tears begin to flow
And our hearts are in our throats.

Yet, well-meant as is the intention, it is doubtful whether a strain like this would really touch either the class described, or the class who will read Mr. Davidson's poems. He who can reach both is the true poet of the people.

Another English rhymer whose heart seems always divided between Nellie or Elaine on the one side and the deepest human problems on the other is Mr. F. B. Money-Coutts (John Lane), and he expresses pity, in a sonnet to Matthew Arnold, for all influences which took that poet away from the muse. In his 'Poems' Mr. Money-Coutts gives a pleasing impression of home affections, and some good sketches of travel, as in the following (p. 65):

ALDEBURG.

Once more I watch the pale and writhing lips
Of this old sea that gnaws around the land.
How lonely are the surges and the strand!
The fishermen are gone, and fled the ships;
The billows, that the cruel tempest whips,

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Shake their gray manes and plunge along the sand;
Round dying day no stars attendant stand;
Far o'er the foam the floating-beacon dips.
When last I wandered here, in childhood's hour,
The sky was blue, the waves were all aglow;
Ah! then my heart unfolded, like a flower
Enisled in innocence; no stormy stower
Of worldly waters, no unfathomed flow
Of passion compassed me with empty woe.

The unusual word "stower" is doubtless the "stour" or "stoor" of the dictionaries; a provincial English word for rushing water.

In looking for a woman's book representing this double striving after the ideal and the actual, one may well select 'The Flower-Seller, and Other Poems' (Longmans), by Lady Lindsay. In various ways she attempts the purely poetic side, and once reaches it in a really strong poem, such as perhaps no other woman now writing poetry in England—except the two mysterious ladies who pose as "Michael Field"—could have excelled (p. 85):

THE STORMY PETREL.

Harbinger of death and danger, o'er the darkling furrowed sea
Rides the Stormy Petrel telling where the gathered whirlwinds be.
Bird of Fate, whom we should welcome, counting thee as truly blest
For thy tidings and thy warnings timely brought from east or west,
Know'st not that an ill-tongued prophet is by all men deemed accurst—
He that soonest cries disaster, he that sees far doom the first?

Thou and thy weird web-footed brethren, sable-featured, tempest-toss'd,
Ye are held for souls of pirates, errant-drifting, sentenced, lost,
Spirits of such crafty Norsemen as in rapine ruled the main,
Shedding blood for very fierceness, lust of treasure and of gain,
Now condemned to wander ever, evermore to dip and lave
Black-stained sins, black deeds of old time, in the crystal-crested wave.

Say, ye wraiths of Viking rovers, grim and dreaded buccaneers,
Whose vindictive quest of white sails still across mid-ocean steers,
Tracking wreck and bringing wreckage—say, in mystic demon form,
Do ye plan and tread, commanding, every footprint of the storm?

Nay, poor Petrel, here's a story writ for thee through gentler lore:
Named wert thou, that walk'st the water, from the impetuous saint of yore—
Peter—who by faith would gladly step with trembling human feet
On the Lord's own shining pathway, there his gracious Lord to greet.
Fear not. He whose touch upheld the apostle's life on Galilee,
Gave thy wings, strong and sustaining, O thou wandering bird, to thee!

Yet when Lady Lindsay turns—evidently with a full heart—to the sorrows of the humbler world around her, she gives the impression of touching it with her finger-tips only and with hands very carefully gloved, as thus (p. 109):

I know a churchyard in the city's core,
And yonder deep in humble grave she lies
And waits for me. The busy people pass
Beside, around, with heedless rapid tread:
The trader who on anxious gain is bent,
Th' apprentice, boyish still and fresh of heart,
The working woman, saddened ere her prime;
And w zened children, playing at tip-cat,
Crouch on the graves, or beggar girls, quite lost
To what's refined, sit sighing, suckling babes
They'd gladly push beneath the close head-stones,
And stretch out greedy palms to garner pence.

This "quite lost to what's refined" gives a fatal impression of a mental remoteness which excludes the author hopelessly from all contact with the real situation. Not thus would Elizabeth Fry or Jane Addams or Mrs. Ballington Booth seek and save the lost; and yet the author's intent is unimpeachable.

Mr. Arthur Thomas Quiller Couch, who publishes under the initial "Q" a volume of 'Poems and Ballads' (London: Methuen), has long since shown a genuine but wayward power, which rises in this volume to the highest point in a really remarkable blank verse poem, "Columbus at Seville," which, although suggesting Browning in its more dramatic portions, yet shows in its conclusion an effectiveness of rhythm that rather recalls the fine versification of Tennyson (pp. 52, 69):

"At Salamanca then they tested us;
Churchmen and schoolmen and cosmogoners
In council. 'Hey!' and 'What?' 'The earth a sphere?
And two ways to Cathaia?' 'Tut and tush!'
'Feared the Cathaians then no b'ood in the head
From walking upside-down?' 'Pray did I know
Of a ship 'would sail up-hill?' 'Had I not heard
Perchance of latitudes where the wheel of the sun
Kept the sea boiling? Of the tropic point
Where white men turned hop-skip to blackamoors?'
'And hark ye, sir, to what Augustine says
And here is Cosmas' map. "God built the world
As a tabernacle: sky for roof and sides,
And earth for flooring. . . . Made all men to dwell
Upon the face of it"—the face, you hear,
Not several faces—"On foundations laid
The earth abides"—foundations, if you please,
Not mid-air. Soothly, sir, at your conceits
We smile, but warn you that they lie not far
On this side heresy. "Antipodes," hey?
Our Mother Church annuls the Antipodes.'

Fools, fools, Diego! Ay, but folly makes
More orphans than malevolence.
There I stood
Rejected, and the good queen looked on me.
She did not smile. Thank God she did not smile.
She did not speak. I saw the mute lips move
Compassionate, and took defeat, went forth.
. . . . . .
Further than I have travelled she hath fared:
But I shall follow. Soon will come the call:
And I shall grip the tiller once again.
The purple night shall heave upon the floor
Mile after mile; the dawn invade the stars,
The stars the dawn—how long? And following down
The moon's long ripple, I shall hear again
The frigate-bird go whistling—see the flash——
The light on Guanahani! Salvador!
Let thy Cross flame upon me in that star,
And from that Cross outstretch *her* sainted hands!"

In 'Verses and Sonnets,' by Hilaire Belloc (London: Ward), the jesting is rather flat, and the more serious part of the little volume is chiefly valuable for the combination of French landscape with English descriptions of nature, as in the following (p. 57):

MAY.

This is the laughing-eyed amongst them all:
My lady's month. A season of young things.
She rules the light with harmony, and brings
The year's first green upon the beeches tall.
How often, where long creepers wind and fall
Through the deep woods in noonday wanderings,
I've heard the month, when she to echo sings,
I've heard the month make merry madrigal.

How often, bosomed in the breathing strong
Of mosses and young flowerets, have I lain
And watched the clouds, and caught the sheltered song—
Which it were more than life to hear again—
Of those small birds that pipe it all day long
Not far from Marly by the memoried Seine.

The modest volume called 'An Opal; Verses,' by Ednah Proctor Clarke (Lamson), recalls in more ways than one the volume equally small and also called 'Verses' in which Helen Hunt (Mrs. Jackson) first made it evident that another woman's voice, full of passion and penetration, had made itself heard. There is a more positive dramatic march in some of the present author's narrative sketches; and her new delineation of Circe has a profounder moral meaning, if less of superb passion, than the "Ariadne" of her predecessor; but there is a quality and execution which "H. H." might have envied in the title-poem of the book (p. 11):

AN OPAL.

A rose of fire shut in a veil of snow;
An April gleam athwart a misted sky:
A jewel—a soul! gaze deep if thou wouldst know
The flame-wrought spell of its pale witchery
And now each tremulous beauty lies revealed,
And now the drifted snow doth beauty shield.

So my shy love, aneath her kerchief white,
Holdeth the glamour of the East in fee;
Warm Puritan—who fears her own delight,
Who trembleth over that she yieldeth me.
And now her lips her heart's rich flame have told;
And now they pale that they have been so bold.

The hymns of Eliza Scudder are so thoroughly established in the hymn-books of all denominations that the reprint, slightly enlarged, of her 'Hymns and Sonnets' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) needed nothing to make it attractive except the admirable and candid sketch of her brief career by Mr. Horace E. Scudder. He has shown simply and clearly how she passed from her Calvinistic training into liberal Unitarianism, and then, under the strong influence of Bishop Brooks, into the Episcopal Church. He says, and perhaps justly, that her later hymns, such as "Lines for Music" and "Vesper Hymn," breathe more of the air of divine content than those written in her unchurched days; but he does not point out the noticeable fact that these later ones have taken, at least as yet, no such strong hold upon the hymn-books. No one has yet fully explained why it is that, in this country especially, so large a portion of the hymns actually used by evangelical churches were composed by Unitarians or Quakers; insomuch that the two hymns generally recognized as carrying the spiritual life to its highest and tenderest point—"Nearer, My God, to Thee" and "While Thee I Seek"—both came from exceedingly heretical sources. The hymn most widely sung, no doubt, among those contributed by Miss Scudder is the following (p. 3):

THE LOVE OF GOD.

Thou Grace Divine encircling all,
A soundless, shoreless sea,
Wherein at last our souls must fall,
O Love of God most free!

When over dizzy heights we go,
One soft hand blinds our eyes;
The other leads us safe and slow,
O Love of God most wise!

And though we turn us from Thy face
And wander wide and long,
Thou hold'st us still in thine embrace,
O Love of God most strong!

The saddened heart, the restless soul,
The toil-worn frame and mind,
Alike confess Thy sweet control,
O Love of God most kind!

But not alone Thy care we claim,
Our wayward steps to win;
We know Thee by a dearer name,
O Love of God within!

And, filled and quickened by Thy breath,
Our souls are strong and free
To rise o'er sin and fear and death,
O Love of God, to Thee!

Mr. Telford Groesbeck's 'The Incas, the Children of the Sun' (Putnams), has the sufficient endorsement of Mr. Clements R. Markham as to its historic truthfulness. He adds also his verdict as to its poetic character; this, however, being less clearly within his domain. We should say that the value of the handsomely printed volume must be sought rather in the prose historical appendix and glossary than in the rhymed portion, which has no peculiar charm, or in the illustrations, which are florid and melodramatic. Mr. Francis Sherman, in his 'Matins' (Boston: Copeland), shows thoughtfulness, serious purpose, facility in versification, and occasionally very bad taste. His outdoor poems, however, seldom fail of a sympathetic appreciation of the finer aspects of nature, as in the following (p. 23):

THE LAST FLOWER.

O Golden-rod, well worshipped of the sun!
Where else hath Summer tarried save in thee?
This meadow is a barren thing to see,
For here the reapers' toil is over and done.
Of all her many birds here is but one
Left to assail the last wild raspberry;
The buttercups and daisies withered be,
And yet thy reign hath only now begun.
O sign of power and sway imperial!
O sceptre thrust into the hands of Fall
By Summer ere Earth forgot her soft foot's tread
O woman-flower, for love of thee, alas,
Even the trees have let their glory pass,
And now with their gold hair are garlanded.

An author has not really made his mark until he begins to have imitators, and Mr. Robert W. Chambers has furnished Mr. Kipling with this tribute in his 'With the Band' (Stone & Kimball). The familiar properties are all here—the Irish dialect, the troop-ship, and at necessary intervals "Gawd." Lest there should be a doubt about it, one poem is expressly inscribed to Mr. Kipling, with some wholesome hints as to the mission and limitations of the English Tommy Atkins. It is also to be said to the author's credit that he has added some poems having a touch of tenderness which Mr. Kipling keeps to himself if he carries it about him—a touch which is at his best in "Eily Considine," the ballad of the regimental belle and beauty of other days,

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now an old woman selling apples at the barrack gate (p. 9):

At the barrack-gate she sits,
Elly Considine;
Now she dozes, now she knits,
While the sunshine, through the slits
In the trellised trumpet-vine,
Warms old Elly Considine,—
Warms her heart that long ago
Set the Regiment aglow!
Sweeter colleen ne'er was seen
Than Eileen,
Lips that flamed like scarlet wine,
Eyes of azure smile divine,—
Is that you
Selling apples
Where the gilded sunlight dapples,
Elly Considine?

'The Tearless Land: A Collection of Poems on Heaven,' compiled by M. C. Hazard, Ph.D. (Congregational Sunday-School Society), has as a compilation the defect, hardly separable from such a work on such a subject, that it inevitably includes a large proportion of the commonplace, and makes the reader doubt whether, after all, it would not have been better to cancel all the pages except those which include Edwin Arnold's "He who died at Azan" or Longfellow's "Into the Silent Land." Goethe describes himself as having been, in youth, among a circle of good people to whom all the details of the next world were so familiar that, when they met you in that abode, they would undoubtedly crowd around you exclaiming, "There, I told you so!" Yet he does not describe this over-familiar handling as having had a very good effect on his own mind, but rather as having created a slight antagonism, so that he rather hoped that immortality might not be a real fact. On the other hand, it is true that such books as this will be most eagerly sought by those who are already convinced; and for these the compilation is well and carefully made, being subject only to the criticism based upon a slight sense of excess. A collection on a quite different theme, but liable in some degree to the same charge of undiscriminating quantity, is 'Love's Demesne: A Garland of Contemporary Love Poems' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). It has been edited in two volumes by George H. Ellwanger, with some labor, obviously, and contains many good things, but also much that is mediocre, while omitting love-poems so remarkable as Helen Hunt's "Burnt Ships" and Saxe Holm's "Three Kisses of Farewell."

Mr. Owen Seaman's 'The Battle of the Bays' (John Lane) is a series of amusing skits on Swinburne, Edwin Arnold, Davidson, Le Gallienne, and the rest. Nothing so good of the kind has been published since Sir Frederick Pollock's 'Leading Cases' in that vein wherein Englishmen, for some reason, surpass Americans; it being, indeed, the only direction, except perhaps dinner-table talk, in which their lightness of touch surpasses ours. There is not the slightest comparison to be made, for instance, in this respect between Mr. Seaman's little book and 'The Acrobatic Muse,' by Mr. R. K. Munkittrick (Chicago: Way & Williams). Among American subjects, the Englishman finds naturally his best game in Whitman, always so easy to mimic in all but his merits; and in the present case the especial theme of the imaginary discourse makes it a palpable hit (p. 71):

SWORDS AND PLOUGHSHARES.

Part I. Presto Furioso.

Spontaneous Us!
O my Camarados! I have no delicatesse as a diplomat, but I go blind on Libertad!
Give me the flap-flap of the soaring Eagle's pinions!
Give me the tail of the British lion tied in a knot, inextricable, not to be solved anyhow!
Give me a standing army (I say "give me," because just at present we want one badly, armies being often useful in the time of war).

I see a superb fleet (I take it that we are to have a superb fleet built almost immediately).
I observe the crews prospectively, they are constituted of various nationalities, not necessarily American;
I see them sling the slug and chew the plug:
I hear the drum begin to hum;

Both the above rhymes are purely accidental and contrary to my principles.
We shall wipe the floor of the mill-pond with the scalps of able-bodied British tars!
I see Professor Edison about to arrange for us a torpedo-hose on wheels, likewise an infernal electro-semaphore;
I see Henry Irving dead-sick and declining to play Corporal Brewster;
Cornell, I yell! I yell Cornell!

I note the Manhattan boss leaving his dry-goods store and investing in a small Gatling-gun and a ten-cent banner;
I further note the Identity evolved out of forty-four spacious and thoughtful States:
I note Canada as shortly to be merged in that Identity; similarly Van Dieman's Land, Gibraltar, and Stratford-on-Avon;
Briefly, I see Creation whipped!

. . . . . .

Part II. Intermezzo Doloroso.

(Allowing time for the fall of American securities to the extent of some odd hundred millions sterling; also for the Day of Rest.)

Part III. Andante Amabile.

Who breathed a word of war?
Why, surely we are men and Plymouth brothers!
Pray, what in thunder should we cut each other's Carotids for?

Merciful powers forefend!
For we by gold-edged bonds are bound alway,
Besides a lot of things that never pay
A dividend!

. . . . . .

Say, sirs, and shall we sever?
And mar the fair exchange of fatted steers,
Chicago pig, and eligible peers?
No! never, never!

Shall gore be made to flow?
Like kindred Sohrabs shall we knock our Rustums,
And blast our beautiful McKinley customs?
Lord love us! no!

Then, burst the sundering bar!
Our punctured pockets yearn across the ocean;
Till now we never had the faintest notion
How dear you are!

O love of other years!
Wall Street, aweary from her broken bliss,
Waits like a loving crocodile to kiss
Again with tears!

An Essay on the Present Distribution of Wealth in the United States. By Charles B. Spahr. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 1896.

THIS work professes to be written to illustrate the proposition that, upon matters within its field, the common observation of common people is more trustworthy than the statistical investigations of the most unprejudiced experts. Indeed, the author has come to believe that social statistics are to be trusted only when they confirm common observation. It is hard to say whether the boldness or the convenience of this proposition is more admirable. It is certainly most comfortable to be assured that we may dispense with all laborious investigation and trust to our general impressions. One of Gen. Grant's secretaries of the treasury, we recollect, reached the conclusion that the farmers of the country were prosperous by looking out of the car window on his way from Massachusetts to Washington and observing some flourishing crops; but, for obvious reasons, a conclusion so reached may be erroneous. Moreover, as the "common observation" of some people directly contradicts that of others, those who hold to Mr. Spahr's doctrine must content themselves with the conviction that their own impressions are correct, without being able to offer any reason why other people should accept them. But we need not say that it is no great luxury to hold opinions which the world is at perfect liberty to reject; particularly when we hold them only on condition that we admit that the opinions contrary to our own are as valid as those which we entertain.

By way of illustrating his proposition that social statistics are of no value, Mr. Spahr proceeds to employ them to demonstrate his theories. We search in vain in this book for any definite propositions established by "common observation." Some vague statements, it is true, are offered as the result of this process, but they are very few. On the other hand, the book is full of statistical tables and numerical returns and estimates, which are accepted as conclusive when they support the author's prejudices, and condemned when they do not. He is confronted with the fact that in New York city the number of savings-bank accounts is nearly twice as great as the number of families, and dismisses this evidence with the comment that two-thirds of the families possess no savings-bank account at all. This assertion appears to be based wholly on the ground that a comparison for a short period of the probate records of the city with the returns of mortality indicated that only 600 males, out of 2,500 who died, left estates that were administered through the Surrogate's Court. This is a fair specimen of the author's methods as a statistician. His general conclusions are that, in this country as a whole, one family out of a hundred owns as much property as the other ninety-nine; that two fifths of the product of industry goes as the share of capital; that "one-tenth of the families have the same aggregate income as the remaining nine-tenths, while the one per cent. at the top have as much as the fifty per cent. at the bottom," and that our taxes place "upon the property of those struggling for independence burdens fourfold heavier than upon the property of those already rich."

The slightest examination of the author's reasoning shows that these conclusions are not worth the paper they are written on, and it would be easy to pulverize his argument in detail, were the game worth the candle. We must confine ourselves to remarking that Mr. Spahr wholly ignores the distribution of our pension largess of $140,000,000 a year, the existence of a horde of recipients of the public revenue, and the provision of free education, free libraries, free medical service, etc., at the expense of the public—to say nothing of the wealthy—whereby, according to his theories, the money raised by taxes is beneficially diffused. He assumes on the one hand that customs and excise duties, licenses, etc., are paid by consumers, and on the other hand that taxes on real estate are not paid by tenants, nor income taxes by any persons except those who receive the income. In other words, an importer or a liquor-seller charges to his customers what the Government exacts from him in duties or licenses, but if the exaction is called an income tax he pays it out of his own profits. No wonder that Mr. Spahr cries out for an income tax; but it must be a progressive one, or, if the Supreme Court will not allow it, let us have what more nearly approaches confiscation, a progressive property tax. He wants to have incomes which he thinks "in excess of the demands of comfort or culture or character" reduced; but his own figures show that no average family, if equality is justice, ought to have an income of more than $1,000 a year, if indeed it ought to have half that. If a scheme of confiscation is to be adopted in this country, it is safe to say that it will not be regulated by Mr. Spahr's views of justice, but by those of the majority of the people; and if he supposes that they are going to exempt a rich man who pleads character or culture in extenuation of his income, he is altogether mistaken as to the nature of the passions that he is trying to stir up. It is perhaps hardly necessary to add that Mr. Spahr attributes most of our recent miseries to "the con-

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traction of the currency that has followed the legislation against silver in 1873 and 1893."

In the Land of Tolstoi. By Jonas Stadling and Will Reason. New York: Thomas Whittaker.

THE sub-title of this volume, "Experiences of Famine and Misrule in Russia," will not only afford a suggestion as to its contents, but, no doubt, prove a strong attraction for the people who have already made up their minds on the subject of Russia in general, and the delights of reading an arraignment of their neighbors in particular. Evil-speaking and a pessimistic view of things are tacitly admitted to be more entertaining than kind words and a charitable view of the circumstances connected with the reprehensible deeds to which we object on our neighbor's part. No doubt, the Russian Government may have been remiss in not turning its attention to the wide-spread failure of the crops in the grain-raising districts sufficiently early in the day, and may, thereby, have laid itself open to the accusation of being, in some degree, responsible for the great famine of 1891-'92. But it certainly is not fair to throw the whole blame upon the "bureaucratic system." Let the assistant author, Mr. Reason, who would appear to be an Englishman, apply the same course of argument to the British Government in connection with the present famine and plague in India, and he will speedily find himself able to draw the line of blame with more accuracy. We feel safe in assuming that he will not indulge in wholesale condemnation of the "system," independent of natural causes and the circumstances which fetter the natives as in a grasp of iron.

The necessity for saying this much by way of preface to our consideration of the contents of the volume is forced upon us by the presence of a great mass of matter which, though extremely interesting in itself, does not come from personal knowledge of the chief author, Mr. Stadling, and has been culled from various printed sources, wherever he found the material suited to his object. Some of this material had already been presented to the public by previous writers, with more or less fulness. But it is far from being out of place here, since it amplifies and renders interesting what might have seemed too slight without it, and it possesses the advantage of affording a better view of several sides of one or two matters than Mr. Stadling would have been able to offer without such assistance. One decided disadvantage—to his own case—which Mr. Stadling does not seem to have detected, is also attached thereto, as we shall point out later on.

We may say, at the outset, that the book is well planned to give as complete a history as possible of Count L. N. Tolstoi from the social, not the literary, point of view, by dint of a summary biography, translations of short stories from his pen, and the like. The pictures, chiefly from photographs taken on the spot by the author (apparently), add greatly to the effect of lifelikeness. But the principal interest lies in the accounts, too scanty by comparison, of Mr. Stadling's acquaintance with the Count, his relatives and helpers, at the scenes of suffering, whither he went to carry certain contributions from England and the United States, gathered among Baptists whose sympathies went out to the Stundists, some of whom call themselves Baptists. Of such there were none where Count Tolstoi himself was working, though Mr. Stadling found a few in the Samara government, where the Count's third son was in charge. For the Count himself Mr. Stadling seems to cherish an almost unbounded admiration, though it is pleasant to see that he retains sufficient independence to indulge in this mild protest: "It is true that, in his 'Kingdom of Heaven is within You,' he uses arguments that seem to many of us to be invalid, and draws inferences from Christ's words that strike us as unwarranted, and that in his books generally he expresses opinions that are no more certainly true than other men's opinions; and of course he believes in them, as we all believe in our own, and very rightly, so long as we really think them, and do not merely reflect the opinions of those about us."

The true aim of the book, however, to which the greater part of it is devoted, and for which the visit to the Tolstoi fields of famine-work and the sufferers serves only as the introduction, is the status of the Stundists and Nonconformists in Russia. This subject Mr. Stadling begins to deal with as soon as he reaches Samara, and, leaving the reader to enjoy the other part for himself, we will take up the subject at that point, with the preliminary comment that it would have been well had our author been able to preserve the admirably unprejudiced note which he had already struck in the paragraph we have quoted, and applied his clear judgment to certain of the anecdotes and incidents which he cites with rather too gentle a credulity. It certainly is effective to say of a chant which he heard, that, "like all Russian songs, it was in a minor strain. . . . These simple, wailing tunes have been shaped during centuries of remorseless persecution, and express the striving after light and freedom of many thousands of souls." That is his keynote—remorseless persecution—for the greater part of the volume. Anything which confirms that view he quotes, as the statement that "several public spirited and wealthy gentlemen had offered to establish practical schools of different kinds, at their own cost, but had not been permitted to do so." No doubt that may have happened, under some circumstances; but what were the circumstances (for many such schools exist, and the Russian newspapers are constantly recording the establishment of others)?

One extremely interesting chapter treats of Prince Dmitri Khilkoff (not the famous present Minister of Public Ways), and the intolerant manner in which the authorities dealt with him. Yet the very last paragraph in the preceding chapter furnishes an exhibition of equal, though impotent, intolerance on the part of the author. Speaking of the ceremony of Blessing the Waters of the Volga, he says that he took some pictures of it—"one of which has been reproduced by the artist, showing the 'holy pavilion' and other details of the Orthodox tomfoolery." It is not possible to do justice to the case of Prince Khilkoff here, and we recommend our readers to investigate it for themselves. While we would not rashly question or doubt any of the author's assertions, or his choice of extracts from the testimony of others upon which he depends, our confidence in his judgment receives a severe shock in the following chapter, entitled "A Ruined Family." This contains another tale of woe, which is founded chiefly upon the statements of a member of it; wherein, precisely, lies the difficulty. The young woman in question furnished Mr. Stadling with her own autobiography, which he and she evidently regard as unusual and verging on martyrdom. Yet that young woman asserts that, while only sixteen years old, and still a school-girl, she was often invited to Court; and at the age of eighteen, while her family was (according to the dates given) still wealthy, she went directly from school to take the place of a teacher, at a handsome salary, in South Russia. These facts are not to be reconciled by any one who is at all cognizant of social matters. Then the young woman goes through the period of unrest common to all young people, and ends by thinking that the eyes of the whole country are upon her. It is almost as harrowing as Mr. Stadling's one exciting adventure, when, after addressing a Stundist meeting, in very cautious language, he was informed that "a gentleman had been inquiring" for him at his lodgings. This he immediately interpreted into a thrilling encounter with the police, though he never heard anything about "the gentleman" afterwards, and the incident had no sequel.

The inevitable inference, on the part of any unprejudiced person, is, that many of the "persecutions" and "oppressions" are exaggerated, though that there is a foundation for the assertion that dissent from the Orthodox Church is discouraged, is not in the least doubtful. And precisely here appears the disadvantage, for his own case, of Mr. Stadling's very interesting and copious quotations on that subject, from Russian authorities, which constitute the last third of his book. Had he possessed any sense of humor, he would have omitted them, and thereby deprived the reader of one of the finest opportunities which any bookmaker has yet furnished us, of comparing the spirit of both parties to this religious conflict, and of perceiving the solid foundation in common sense of the Government's and the Church's objections to dissent in general. We advise our readers carefully to peruse for themselves this quoted (and duly credited) portion of the book, beginning with Chapter XIV. We are much mistaken if their verdict does not turn out to be that, by Mr. Stadling's own showing, there are certain very dreadful excesses to which dissent, in general, is peculiarly liable—not in Russia alone, for the cases could be matched in many other lands—from the Russian temperament, combined of mysticism and logic, and to which members of the Established Church do not yield; and that the campaign, on the part of Government and Church, against these Stundists, and others of like dissenting views, is less as heretics than as offenders against commonly accepted moral standards, which have to do with the common weal. Mr. Stadling has succeeded in pleading the cause of Government and Church in a very able and convincing, if, also, in a perfectly unintentional and unconscious, manner; and they should feel under obligations to him for this fair juxtaposition of the golden and the silver sides of the shield.

The Contest over the Ratification of the Federal Constitution in the State of Massachusetts. By Samuel Bannister Harding. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896.

MR. HARDING'S paper, of some 116 pages, with several appendices, is the result, he tells us, of work done in connection with the Seminary of American History and Institutions of Harvard University. His study of the original sources has brought out or distinctly emphasized one or two points. One is that the struggle over the Constitution was really decided by Massachusetts. The forces for and against were so nearly divided that, had not

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many anti-Federalist towns been unrepresented in the convention, the Constitution might have been defeated. Besides this, it was in Massachusetts that the most serious obstacles to the Federal plan were obviated by the device of ratification accompanied by amendments.

Another is the character of the opposition to the Constitution. Democracy against Aristocracy, and Local Self-Government against Centralization, were the cries of which it took advantage; but nothing is more certain than that the main social forces which underlay it were ignorance and dishonesty and dislike of government of any kind. Different as the country is to-day from what it was a hundred years ago, there is hardly an anarchistic cry or Populist slogan which cannot be matched in these pages from the anti-Federalist literature. Among those who did their utmost to defeat the Constitution, there was just the same hatred of lawyers (they were shrewd enough to personify their enemy in this way), the same suspicion and dislike of creditors, the same love of legal tender and dislike of a fixed standard, the same belief that every one opposed to them was English in sympathy or else corrupt, the same idea that they were all being oppressed by some one. Shays, with his Rebellion, plays the part of an eighteenth-century Debs or Altgeld; some eighteen or twenty of the delegates to the Constitutional Convention had been in his "army" the year before (p. 59). There was the same opposition, too, between city and country, and between the commercial classes (*i. e.*, those having connection with the world at large) and the local agricultural interests. The Ashfield Resolves of 1776 reveal, according to the author, an extraordinary self-confidence among ignorant men, but this has always been and is to-day a marked American trait. "We do not want any Goviner but the Goviner of the Univarse" was their way of putting it; the machinery of government was inherently tyrannical because it was compulsory. In Pittsfield in the same year we find an inquiry made of the General Court: "We have heard much of Government being founded in Compact: what compact has been formed as the foundation of Government in this Province?" Ten years later, people holding these views were easily filled with hostility to the proposals for a stronger government.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aristotle and the Earlier Peripatetics: Being a Translation from Zeller's 'Philosophy of the Greeks.' 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $7.
Arnold, Sir Edwin. Death—and Afterwards. New Amsterdam Book Co. 60c.
Baildon, W. P. Select Cases in Chancery. 1364-1471. London: Bernard Quaritch.
Balzac, H. de. About Catherine de' Medici. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Clark, W. L. Handbook of the Law of Private Corporations. St Paul: West Publishing Co. $3 75.
Craddock, Ida C. The Heaven of the Bible. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50c
Crouse, M. Elizabeth. Vigilie. Putnams. $1.
Eaton, A. W. The Heart of the Creeds. 3d ed. Whittaker. $1.
Emerson, Edwin, jr. The College Year-Book and Athletic Record 1896-'97. Stone & Kimball.
Field, Edward. The Colonial Tavern: A Glimpse of New England Town Life in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries. Providence: Preston & Rounds. $2.
Fitzgerald, P. F. The Rational, or Scientific, Ideal of Morality. London: Sonnenschein & Co.
Fletcher, J. S. Ballads of Revolt. John Lane. $1.
Fraser, Prof. A. C. Philosophy of Theism. Gifford Lectures. Scribners $2.
Gallon, T. Tatterley: The Story of a Dead Man. Appletons. $1
Haves, Dr. J. R. How to Live Longer. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Hestop, R. O. A Bibliographical List of Works Illustrative of the Dialect of Northumberland. London: English Dialect Society; New York: Macmillan.
Higginson, T. W. Book and Heart: Essays on Literature and Life. Harpers $1 50
Housman, A. E. A Shropshire Lad. John Lane. $1.25.
Hutton, Laurence. Literary Landmarks of Rome. Harpers. $1
Huysmans, J.-K. En Route. 2d ed. London: Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: New Amsterdam Book Co. $1 50.
James, Prof. William. The Will to Believe, and Other Essays in Popular Philosophy. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Lowell, J. R. Complete Poetical Works. Cambridge Edition. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Lowry, H. D. Make-Believe. John Lane. $1 50
Magie, Prof. W. F. Anthony and Brackett's Elementary Text-Book of Physics. Revised eighth ed. John Wiley & Sons. $4
Maxwell, Sir Herbert. Robert the Bruce. [Heroes of the Nations.] Putnams. $1.50.
Manual of Statistics. 1897. New York: Charles H. Nicoll. $3.
McLintock, R. Goethe's Faust. In English with Introduction and Notes. London: David Nutt.
Memoirs of Marshal Oudinot, Duc de Reggio. Appletons. $2.
Pressensé, F. de. Purcell's "Manning" Refuted: Life of Cardinal Manning with a Critical Examination of E. S. Purcell's Mistakes. Philadelphia: J. J. McVey. $1.
Regnault, Félix. Hypnotisme, Religion. Paris: Schleicher Frères; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Reynolds, Sir J. R. Essays and Addresses. Macmillan. $4.
Richardson, Prof. O. H. The National Movement in the Reign of Henry III. Macmillan. $1 50.
Risley, R. V. The Sentimental Vikings. John Lane. $1.
Toutée, Commandant Dahomé, Niger, Touareg. Notes et Récits de Voyage. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Trent, Prof. W. P. Southern Statesmen of the Old Régime. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2
Verly, Hippolyte. Le Triomphe du Socialisme: Journal d'un Ouvrier Révolutionnaire. Paris: Le Soudier; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Veysey, A. H. A Cheque for Three Thousand. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.
Villard, O. G. The Early History of Wall St. 1653-1789. Putnams.
Vogüé, E. M. de. Jean d'Agrève. Paris: Colin & Cie.
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